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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*Railroad
Questions Still
Foremost.*

Questions relating to transportation have held their place within the past month as of more public interest than any others. A deep impression was made by the disclosures of the so-called Harriman inquiry conducted by the Interstate Commerce Commission, to which allusion was made in these pages last month. It is quite possible that the aroused sentiment of the country in consequence of facts brought out in this inquiry had something to do with the attitude of State legislatures. Whatever may have been the controlling causes, it is undoubtedly true that legislatures within the past few weeks have shown a disposition to pass restrictive railroad laws such as has not been witnessed for thirty years.

*In
the Legis-
latures.*

These legislatures are biennial in their sittings, and it has been the one great object of the railroad influences to secure their adjournment with pending bills unpassed or greatly modified. This would give breathing space for another two years. Some of the legislatures have already adjourned, having passed important railroad laws; others have adjourned without making such enactments, while others are still in session with railroad topics under discussion. In a later paragraph we shall refer more particularly to what has been going on in these States. Meanwhile, it may be in order to speak of some general phases of the subject.

*Appeals
to the
President.*

On the part of the railroad managers there has been an almost hysterical appeal for some kind of reassurance from President Roosevelt. Either intentionally or unintentionally the President's attitude is constantly misstated in the vicinity of Wall Street. He is represented among those who do business in that

atmosphere as in a condition of frothing mania against railroad companies. It is constantly alleged that he has set out on a course which must drive all great corporations to bankruptcy. From the state of mind present in Wall Street, and the kind of comment characteristic there, it would seem fair to assume that not one man in a hundred who is concerned with large affairs at the center of the country's financial interests has ever really read the President's messages or his other discussions of railroads and corporations.

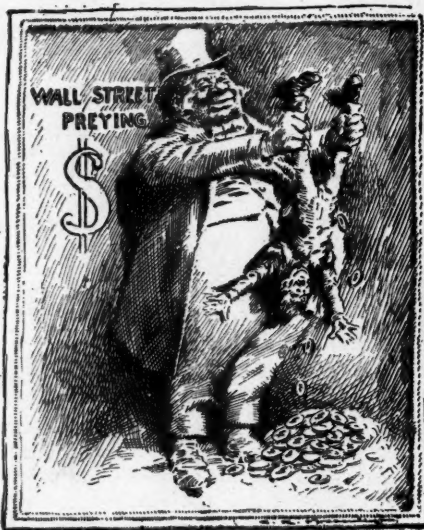
*Wall Street
and the
Administration.*

A sort of black pall of prejudice and misapprehension seems to have settled down over the lower end of Manhattan Island, while the sun shines very pleasantly over the rest of



NO MOLLY-CODDLING HERE.

(This is the prevailing Wall Street notion of President Roosevelt's attitude toward corporate interests.)—From the *Globe*, New York.



SUGGESTED AS A COMPANION TO THE "WASHINGTON PRAYING" TABLET PUT IN PLACE ON THE SUB-TREASURY BUILDING, FEBRUARY 22.

From the *World*, New York.

(This is the prevailing view of Wall Street methods in the country at large.)

the country. President Roosevelt's attitude toward the railroads is as mild, placid, and unemotional as the attitude of certain great corporate managers toward him is the opposite. He has done nothing and he has said nothing which should offend either the intelligence or the sense of justice of any business man of reasonable mind. It was not the President who cross-examined Mr. Harriman in the Interstate Commerce inquiry; and, in any case, the facts that were brought out related to public matters of great importance, and the public was fully entitled to know them. The President has at all times been open, frank, and accessible. He has been able to reorganize the Interstate Commerce Commission under an enactment which gives it greater authority. It will be very desirable to add to this legislation in the near future.

More Government Control Needed. The national Government's power to regulate the carrying on of interstate commerce through the operation of the large railroad network of the country is not yet as complete as it ought to be. It is not merely for the welfare of the general public, but also for that of the owners of railroad securities, that it is desirable to have a more extended and efficient

governmental control. Efforts heretofore had been directed largely toward the breaking up of the practice of granting large rebates and various other favors to particular shippers, by which they were enabled to drive their competitors to the wall. To some extent the Government has endeavored to prevent discrimination as between different points or communities. It has tried to enforce regulations for the better protection of life and limb and the better treatment of engineers and other train employees. Upon the practical problems having to do with safety of travel, we beg to call attention to a group of three articles which will be found elsewhere in this number of the *REVIEW*, written for us by competent contributors, dealing with different phases of the railway-accident question. There has been such needless havoc that it is certainly necessary for the Government to try to enforce the better standards of safety as against the more negligent of the railway companies. Further than that, the Government has been trying to aid in securing a more ample and efficient service for various parts of the country, as, for example, in a case like the recent coal famine in the Northwest. To understand the facts is to supply half of the remedy. And conditions are going to improve steadily as a result of probing and inquiry by the Government and discussion in the press.



THE RAILROAD WATERBOY. (MR. HARRIMAN HAD SUGGESTED GOING INTO GOVERNMENT EMPLOY.)

UNCLE SAM: "Yes, I know your forte is carrying water, but we'll get along without your services."
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

*Financial
Methods Need
Reform.*

The plain truth is that the brains of the railway world in recent years have been turned with too much concentration in the direction of the private and personal accumulation of wealth, and the consequence of it all has been a marked falling off in the efficiency of railroad operation. There has been enormous watering of stock, and the watered stock has in great part found its way into the strong-boxes of promoters and so-called financiers. These men, having obtained voting power and virtual control through great issues of securities, have naturally been tempted to adopt policies for the payment of dividends to themselves upon stocks that were in reality valueless. In order to pay such dividends they have strained the credit of railroad properties. In some cases they have converted the real value of the roads into bonds which they have sold to the investing public, and they have in turn used a part of the proceeds of such bond sales to pay themselves dividends upon their watered stocks. They have now reached a time when the growing traffic of the country requires enormous expenditures for double-tracking, additional terminals, new cars and engines, and all sorts of additional facilities.

*Operation
Needs
Reform.*

And just at the time when the credit of the properties should have been ample for securing the money with which to make improvements there comes the revelation of their financial mismanagement in connection with the transactions of a period of railway combination. Thus the public is distrustful and timid, and afraid to come forward with the money desired for the needful improvements. But even the facilities that exist have not been used of late with a sufficiently high degree of effectiveness. It has been almost impossible to move freight because of shortages in the car supply and of congestion at terminal points. Yet a better system of handling and moving traffic, even with inadequate facilities, would have saved much of the trouble. If the railroad heads had been giving nearly as much exercise of will power and determination to the operating of their systems in recent years as they have been giving to the game of strategy and conquest among themselves we should have witnessed a very different condition of railway operation. These things may sound a trifle harsh, but they are the truth. It is a passing phase, and belongs to a period of great changes.



EXPLAINING THE GAME.

Harriman, the great manipulator, telling how he bought stock for "investment" and not for "control."—From the Press (Philadelphia.)

(The above cartoon represents a prevailing view of Mr. Harriman since he gave his testimony before the Interstate Commerce Commission.)

*National Con-
trol of
Stock Issues.*

Among the new steps to be taken at Washington, there should be a provision for the national incorporation of interstate railroads and a further provision requiring all railroads doing interstate business to take out federal licenses. Further than that, the law should authorize the Interstate Commerce Commission to pass upon questions of future issues of stocks and bonds, in order to prevent over-capitalization. The country is not so much concerned about past issues, and there is a belief among the people that so great is our capacity for further progress that we can grow up to present issues and substitute solid value for what is now fictitious. But future issues should be passed upon, and the national Government, rather than that of any particular State, is the one to exercise the authority. For example, the State of Minnesota is endeavoring to compel the Great Northern Railroad to submit to the approval of its

Railroad and Warehouse Commission its pending stock increase of \$60,000,000. The road contends that it needs the money for expenditure throughout its entire system all the way to the Pacific Coast. Most of it will be spent in States other than Minnesota, although the road obtained its original charter in that State. It is obvious that the Interstate Commerce Commission could much better pass upon a question of the increase in the capital stock of Mr. Hill's road than can the Minnesota Commission.



MR. JAMES SPEYER, OF NEW YORK.

(A banker and railway financier who steadily supports the Administration, and consulted with the President last month.)

To Prohibit Certain Transactions. Another provision that would seem highly desirable, in view of recent disclosures, is an enactment to prevent interstate railroads from making investments in the shares of stock of other railroad companies. At least it should be required that consent should first be obtained from the Interstate Commerce Commission. Furthermore, a prohibition should be placed upon the sort of transaction by means of which railroad officers and directors engage in profitable dealings with their own company. It is against public as well as private business morals for the high officers of

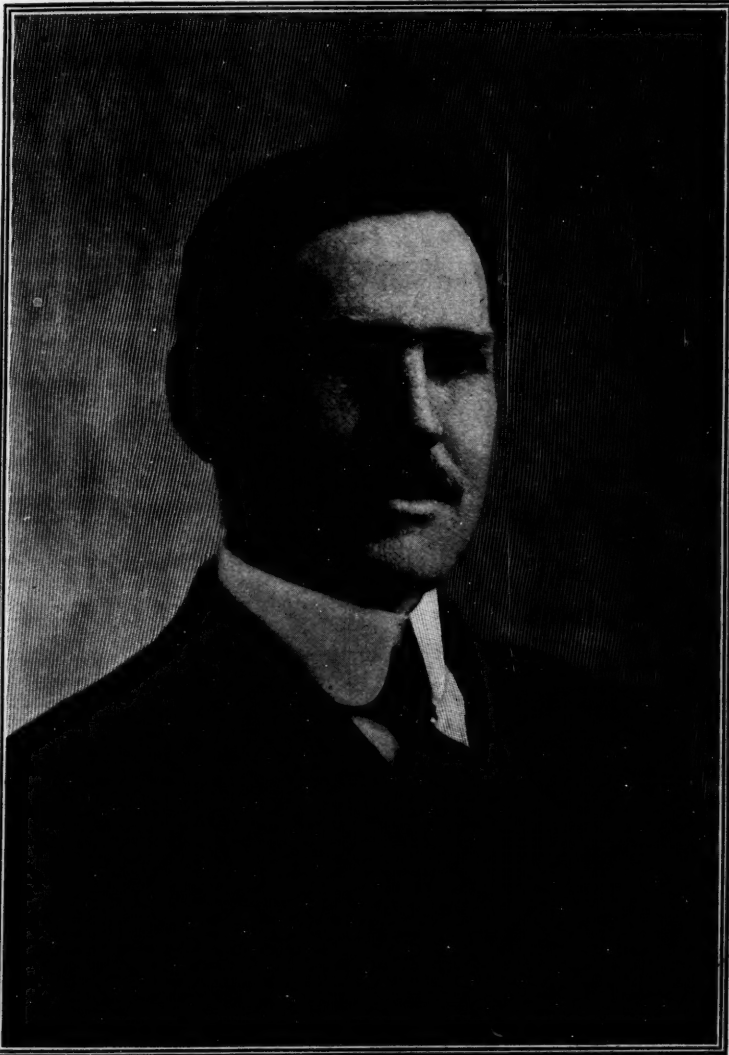
corporations to be constantly feathering their own nests by deals of one kind or another in which they conduct both sides of the transaction and pocket the profits. It is a scandalous line of conduct, which,—it may be fairly said,—no other country would for a moment tolerate. It must end here.

No Thought of Confiscation.

On the other side of the situation some things are to be said. A fear has been spread among thousands of innocent and honorable holders of railway investments that the Government may have on foot some kind of absolute project of valuation,—reckoned upon original cost of road-building and equipment,—which is to be used as a basis for a sweeping reduction of rates that would destroy all investment landmarks and throw all the roads of the country into bankruptcy. Since nothing of this kind is in contemplation, it would perhaps be well if such misapprehension could be cleared away. The Iowa land which could have been bought for \$10 an acre some years ago is now worth \$100, and the owner is going to be allowed to enjoy his fortunate position. Undoubtedly a reasonable amount of benefit from the increase of values belongs to the railway investor, just as it does to the man who owns real estate. Confiscation is as far from the mind of President Roosevelt, Secretary Straus, Mr. Garfield, the Interstate Commerce Commission, and other officers of the Administration, as it is from the minds of other sane, reasonable, and just men.

Other Needed Changes.

The railroads,—if a way might be made possible,—should be allowed to enter into traffic agreements with one another, such agreements to be with the consent of the Interstate Commerce Commission. It is worth while also to consider whether there should not be greater initiative on the part of the Government in the matter of the projecting of new lines. In other countries it would not be possible for any set of speculators or even of responsible railway capitalists to build, or to threaten to build, any competing lines without having had their proposed route carefully studied by the public authorities before permission could be granted. The building of competing lines or the threat to build them disturbs and demoralizes the field of railway finance and also that of railway operation; and it is for the public interest as well as for that of existing railway lines that the Gov-



Photograph by Harris & Ewing, Washington.

HON. JAMES R. GARFIELD, SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

(Mr. Garfield has been identified with the Administration's policies toward corporations, and has led in advocacy of the plan of a federal license for companies doing an interstate business.)

ernment should be in a position to regulate this subject.

*States
and
Nation.*

When Congress was in session during the winter the railroad interests were arguing strongly against the tendency toward centralization. They talked much and eagerly about the sovereignty of the States and the disposition of President Roosevelt to invade the sphere of the several commonwealths. But now

that Congress is adjourned, these same railroad interests have been declaiming with equal earnestness against the tendency on the part of the State legislatures to regulate the highways of commerce, and declare that the only proper thing is national regulation. They have not only been asking the States to defer action in order that the national policy may be carried out, but they were even appealing to President Roosevelt to meddle in the affairs of the States by trying

to persuade Governors and legislatures to drop pending measures. This, of course, is something that it was manifestly impossible for the President to do. It is obvious enough, meanwhile, that the larger aspects of railway control must belong definitely to the central Government. On the other hand, there will remain a great deal that will lie within the proper sphere of the particular States. There need be no conflict, either in principle or in practice. The general standards of railroad administration must be fixed by Congress and the Interstate Commerce Commission; but there are many smaller lines of railroad lying wholly within States and subject only to State jurisdiction. The States may very properly increase the power conferred upon their railroad commissions and may deal with rate questions and taxation questions as they deem best. The railroads have recourse to the courts in case of arbitrary or unduly severe action; but meanwhile, their best recourse is, in the spirit of candor and frankness, to the people and to the public authorities. They should help rather than hinder honest politics.

*Railroads
and
Politics.*

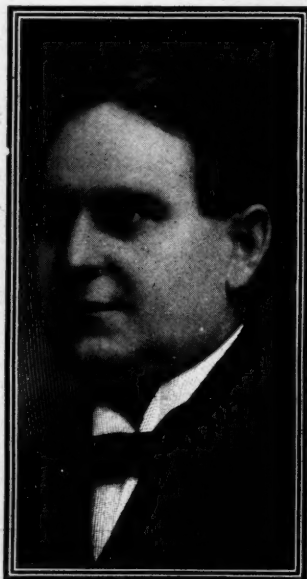
In years past the railroad companies have been sowing the wind in the politics of most of the States, and the only wonder is that they are not now reaping the whirlwind. By way of illustration let us quote a letter recently received in this office from an intelligent man in the State of Nebraska:

I feel that I ought to tell you something about the extent of the revolution that has been wrought within the Republican party since the Roosevelt idea became dominant. The railroad control of the State has been broken. The present Legislature is clean and independent, and is working without any assistance from the lobby. We have two young men here, Governor George L. Sheldon and Senator-elect Norris Brown, who represent the militant ideals of the younger Republican generation. An intelligent outsider who would come here and sniff the new political atmosphere that these men and events have created in Nebraska could compare the

present with the situation of ten years ago and get a series of articles out of the change that would be an American epic. The result of such a study of the situation from the ground up would give the country courage for the further fight for honest politics.

The thing that happened, in brief, was this: Last spring, George L. Sheldon, graduate of the State University and a Harvard Law School man, left his farm and began stumping the State on the proposition that the railroads must be

driven out of Nebraska politics. At the same time, Norris Brown, Iowa State University graduate, Attorney-General of the State, took the stump for equality of taxation between railroads and other property owners, and the end of railroad domination of politics. Sheldon is a native of Nebraska, about thirty-six years old, and a man of power. He was nominated and elected governor. Brown is about forty-three years old, a brilliant, polished man, with much ability in the line of making friends and captivating crowds. Sheldon is a man of some means. Brown is poor and knows the fight he has on hand when he attempts to live in Washington on a Congressional salary. The success of these young men in tipping over one of the strongest railroad machines in the country ought to inspire other men to attempt the same thing elsewhere.



HON. NORRIS BROWN, OF NEBRASKA.

(United States Senator-elect.)

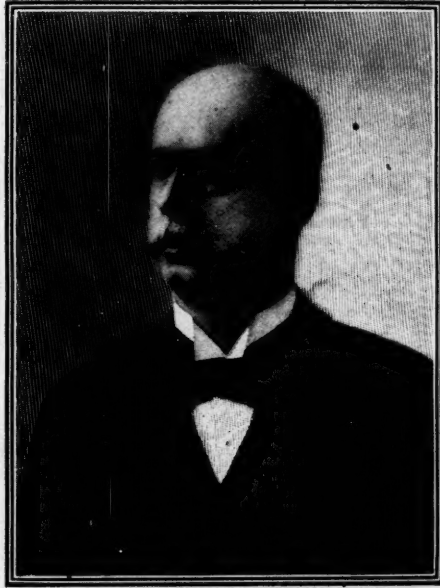
The above is from a private letter, written with no thought that a line of it would be published.

It simply expresses the relief of a citizen in feeling that the public life of his State is at last emancipated from what he has regarded as a corrupt and horrid form of insidious domination through corporation influences that could afford to work, in off years as well as in election years, and all the year round, because there was money to pay the bills.

*What
It Has
Meant.*

And if this is the story of Nebraska in the opinion of a well-informed and unbiased citizen, what is to be said of a great many other States, east and west? The situation was of such a sort that men scarcely dared to tell the truth about it, because of the punishment that might be visited upon them in their personal interests. Do we not all know very well how the representatives of these inter-

ests gathered at Chicago in 1904, and how they winced at the nomination of Mr. Roosevelt, which only a year before they had thought it certain they could defeat? The President disapproves of that style of politics, but he shows no resentment toward corporations as such, and he is incapable of such a feeling toward individuals. He is simply trying to save the railroads themselves from the ultimate disasters that they were hastening toward when they adopted and pursued such methods. With men of high type and independent mind holding the public offices, all that the railroads need is to make an honest statement of their cases when bills are pending. A man like Governor Hughes, of New York, for example, has both the intelligence and the justness of mind to be perfectly fair toward corporation interests, and the same thing may be said of many other of the present Governors. The wonderful thing is that the revolution in so many of our State situations has been accomplished without bringing to the front a régime either of demagogues or of anti-corporation fanatics.



MR. CHARLES S. MELLEN.

(President of the New York, New Haven & Hartford railway system, eminent as an able and public-spirited railroad man, who conferred with the President last month.)

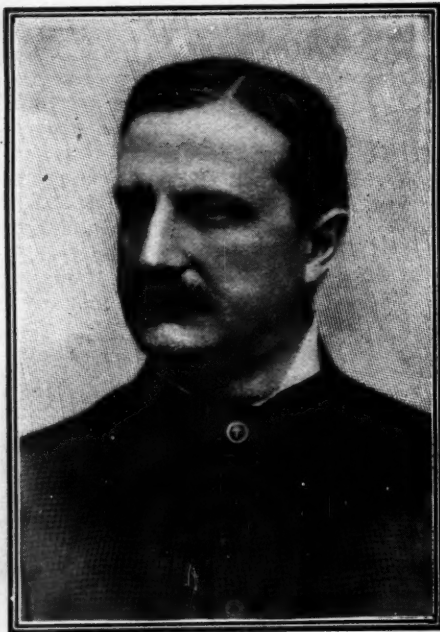
*How to Deal
with the
Public.*

The convention-packing methods of the railroad attorneys in the Western States and in other parts of the country have never done the railroads the smallest particle of good, nor has the attempt to influence by undue means the action of legislatures been otherwise than foolish and harmful to railroad interests. All interests have an entire right to be heard openly and fairly on their own behalf. Responsible railroad men should always be ready to appear before legislative committees, and to explain their views and wishes to a larger public with confidence in the fairness of the American people. It is sheer nonsense to talk about prevailing hostility to railroads. Almost everybody who has influence enough to make his hostility felt is in one way or another interested in having the railroads well carried on and sufficiently prosperous. The hostility is not against the railroads, but against their improper political methods, against their mismanagement by men who have betrayed their trusts, and against the slack and slovenly operation of the roads, that has begun to show itself in the multiplication of accidents and in a variety of other ways, both great and small. It is not, in our opinion, the proper time for severe public action in the direction of reduction of rates. Some of the legislatures seem inclined to dwell too strongly on this point. What

the public really wants is good service. Everybody is willing to have the railroads make a fair profit; and to reduce rates at a time when the roads must make great improvements may give the companies an excuse for failing to meet the needs of traffic.

*It Might
Have Been
Worse.*

Upon the whole, the railroads should consider themselves lucky that they are getting no very rough treatment on the political rebound. They have held down the States and stifled their political life so long that it is something of a wonder that in this reaction against their humiliating control there should be found in power, upon the whole, men of such ability and conservatism, rather than the sort of men who would try to make mere political capital out of anti-corporation zeal. Doubtless in some of the legislatures this year there have been this cheaper class of politicians, who derive their courage to oppose corporations from what seems to them to be the popular movement led by President Roosevelt. When men are too zealous in their attacks upon railroads and corporations, they will bear watching. Some of them belong to the class known in politics as "strikers." The



MR. WILLIAM ROCKEFELLER,

(Who is one of the controlling powers in Wall Street, and a leader of the "Standard Oil Group.")

railroad interests of the country are of stupendous magnitude, and they should not be treated recklessly by those in power. It is true that these interests have been treated very recklessly by their own presidents, directors, and high officials; but that is no reason why Government, either at Washington or in the States, should be other than very deliberate and cautious in dealing with billions of dollars' worth of railroad property upon which is dependent other forms of property worth even more billions.

*The
Panic of
March 14.*

Perhaps the pessimistic note has been sufficiently sounded. It was the country's distrust,—due, in part, to such facts as were brought out by recent hearings before the Interstate Commerce Commission,—that had much to do with bringing on the Wall Street panic of Thursday, March 14. The market for railroad and other shares on the Stock Exchange had been steadily declining for some weeks. The break on the 14th was a very sharp one. There were, however, no failures following it, even of speculative brokers, and the business world outside of Wall Street went serenely on its way, with no evidences

of serious concern. The stock market recovered to a considerable extent in the days immediately following, although there was no reason to expect it to go back to the high level of several months ago. The whole affair illustrated in a new way the wonderful development of strength in the American money market and its ability to meet critical situations which would have led to serious failures a few years ago. Underlying the financial strain,—quite apart from the distrust due to reckless railroad and corporation finance,—is the tremendous recent business activity of the country.

*Demands
Upon
Capital.*

This activity has manifested itself in every direction. We have made marvelous progress in manufactures of every kind, and this has taken almost unthinkable sums of capital. Other vast sums have been poured into new mining enterprises, while others have been absorbed in the legitimate and speculative advances in real estate. Hundreds and thousands of millions have gone into recent improvements of such a nature as electric trolley lines, not to mention the great expenditures of the principal steam-railroad systems. To a mere luxurious innovation like the use of automobiles, there has been devoted an amount of new capital that reaches high into the hundreds of millions. And these are only a few of the directions in which accumulations of American capital have been drawn since the year 1900. The upshot of it all is that there is not now enough available capital in existence to meet the urgent demands of those who wish to borrow money for further railroad construction and other legitimate purposes.

*A Time
for
Prudence.*

There must be a little more frugality in expenditure, and a general toning-down of the situation. Credit had become too much extended and everything was going at too swift a pace. Such momentary shocks as those of the stock-market panic of last month give wholesome warning to the country; and sensible business men, while not taking counsel of mere timidity, are willingly taking counsel of prudence. A certain amount of so-called liquidation is desirable, and the prospects are that we shall have put on the brakes successfully without any harmful stoppage of the wheels of business. The need for capital, particularly for the carrying on of railroad improvements, has advanced the rates of interest.

The railroads have been borrowing money on short-time notes and paying for it almost twice as high a rate as they had been accustomed to pay on the old plan of issuing bonds. It is not surprising, therefore, that the very companies which were willing to pay so high a price for fresh capital could not maintain market prices for their shares of stock at quotations so high as to net the investor only half as much as he could otherwise obtain for his money. There was bound to be some equalization of values in view of the current high rates for money.

*Making New
Railroad
Laws.*

Bills creating railroad commissions have been enacted in Alabama and in several of the far Western States. The Oregon Legislature patterned after special features in the Wisconsin and Texas laws, prohibited free passes, and added a provision relating to reciprocal demurrage. In Nevada, a State which has undoubtedly suffered from excessive freight rates, the new law forces connecting lines to make joint rates and prescribes a maximum charge of about half the present tariff. Other restrictions of varying degrees of stringency were enacted, but the laws that have attracted most attention throughout the country have been those prescribing maximum passenger fares. For a long time it had been thought that the manifest prosperity of the railroads as reflected in the reductions in freight tariffs that have taken place from time to time during the past twenty-five years should have had something like a parallel effect on the rates charged for passenger traffic.

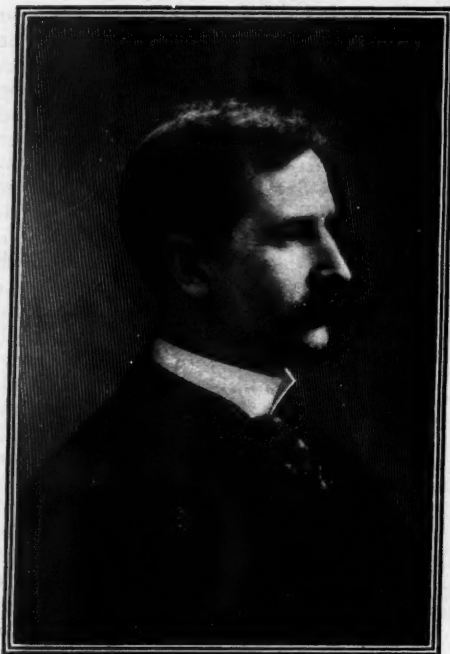
*Fixing
Passenger
Fares.*

This consensus of opinion resulted in the passage by many State legislatures, during the past winter, of bills limiting the fare per mile to $2\frac{1}{2}$, $2\frac{3}{4}$, or 2 cents, as the case might be. Ohio passed a 2-cent-fare law one year ago. When this magazine went to press late last month the States of Indiana, Maryland, Missouri, Nebraska, and West Virginia had enacted a flat rate of 2 cents per mile. The Iowa Legislature had passed a law requiring railroads earning annually \$4000 per mile to make their fares 2 cents; those earning from \$3500 to \$4000 per mile, $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents, and those earning less than \$3500, 3 cents. North Carolina had adopted a rate of $2\frac{1}{4}$ cents a mile on all roads more than sixty miles long. In Alabama and South Dakota $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents had been made the maximum rate, and in

North Dakota the same maximum had been enacted, with a provision that 1000-mile books should be sold at a flat rate of 2 cents per mile. Two-cent-fare bills were pending in the legislatures of Illinois, Kansas, and Minnesota. It was believed that in the latter State a compromise would be agreed on of $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents as the maximum rate, with mileage books affording a 2-cent rate. This was advocated partly because of Nebraska's experiences under the 2-cent enactment, which went to show that the railroads would take reprisals on the public, as it were, by withdrawing all special excursion rates and abolishing concessions of every kind to the traveling public. The managers of the railroads operated in Nebraska pointed to the comparatively conservative attitude of the Wisconsin railroad commission, which reported against a 2-cent-fare law in that State. The Wisconsin law, by the way, has been chosen as a model by several States and is regarded by students of the railroad question as the most effective State law now in force. State Senator William H. Hatten, whose leadership secured the passage of the law, was spoken of last month as a possible successor of Mr. Spooner in the United States Senate.

*Illinois'
Great
Waterway.*

Railroad interests centering in Chicago were particularly concerned last month with the attitude of the Illinois Legislature, which had before it several 2-cent-fare measures of the popular type. A plan similar to that adopted by Iowa,—namely, a sliding schedule based on earnings per mile,—had received some support in the Illinois Legislature. In the meantime, the question of the deep-water river and canal improvement from Lake Michigan to the Mississippi River had acquired more than academic interest because of the failure of Congress to make an appropriation for this purpose in the River and Harbor bill of the past session. There was every reason to believe that Governor Deneen's recommendations on this subject would meet with the concurrence of the Legislature, and that Illinois would soon be vying with New York in the construction of an engineering work worthy of the best energies of any American State. The Illinois waterway, unlike the Erie Canal, would be closed to navigation not more than thirty days each winter. It would furnish an outlet for Lake shipping, and along its route are coal deposits said to be located as favorably for transportation by river as are those along



STATE SENATOR W. H. HATTEN, OF WISCONSIN.

(Who is identified with recent railroad legislation, and is a candidate for Senator Spooner's seat at Washington.)

the Monongahela and Kanawha. New York's great canal enterprise, involving the total expenditure of more than \$100,000,000, will be vigorously pushed under the able and aggressive administration of Governor Hughes.

A Conference on Corporation Control. Several of the Northwestern Governors, including Governor Johnson, of Minnesota, and Governor Warner, of Michigan; have recently spoken of the desirability of a conference among the heads of a number of commonwealths regarding the best methods of exercising public control over railroads. A better plan, however, would seem to be that which is announced by the National Civic Federation. It proposes to secure the assemblage of a large conference of representative people, on the whole subject of the public control of transportation and industrial corporations. The federation, through a committee of well-known men, has arranged to invite the Governors of the States to appoint delegates. In like manner the boards of trade, chambers of commerce, and other im-

portant interests will be represented, as will the railroads and the corporations themselves. As a result of frank discussion it is hoped that a carefully selected commission may be named to consider and report upon the amendments necessary to make more effective the Interstate Commerce act and the Sherman Anti-Trust act, and also to define somewhat clearly the line to be observed between national and State regulation and the principles and policies which the States might well adopt by a sort of common consent. The time is opportune for a conference of this kind.

Interior Waterways.

The transportation problem in other phases is brought to public attention by recent occurrences. A notable instance is the appointment by the President of a board to consider the whole question of the improvement of the interior system of rivers and waterways. The President's letter on the subject is a comprehensive statement. The time is ripe for a broad study of the best way to deal with streams and to utilize them from various standpoints. The growth of traffic beyond the capacity of railroads makes it incumbent upon the country to see if a much larger use may not be made of the waterways for the heavier classes of trade. It has been recently said that the railroads of the country involve an aggregate investment of \$17,000,000,000. From first to last the Government has spent a great deal of money upon river and harbor improvements; but in general the expenditures have not been made upon the lines of a permanent system. In the work of the Reclamation Service we have found a way to invest public money for the development and enrichment of the country. River improvement henceforth should proceed upon plans intended to accomplish lasting ends.

How to Proceed.

For example, the City of Pittsburgh last month suffered to the extent of many millions of dollars by reason of great floods at the head of the Ohio River, and further damage, immense in the aggregate, was caused at other points along the course of the Ohio. Cincinnati and other cities on that river have been damaged year after year, through overflow at the high-water season, while they have been subjected to loss and inconvenience from failure of navigation in the season of low water. A small fraction of the aggregate amount of actual damages during the

past thirty or forty years from floods in the Ohio River would probably pay for a full system of storage dams and other engineering works to control and regulate flood water in the chief tributaries of the Ohio, so that disasters could be prevented, while a navigable depth could be maintained at the period of exceptional low water. The cities and States contiguous to the Ohio River would themselves profit greatly from a joint investment that would carry out some maturely planned engineering scheme. The Mississippi, all the way from Minneapolis to the Gulf, can and should be so regulated as to provide for constant navigation.

*The
New
Commission.*

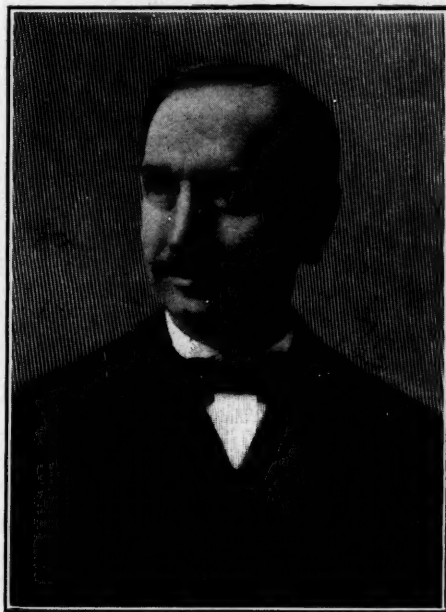
There are many other points of interest besides those of navigation and protection against floods that the President in his letter associates with his scheme of river improvement and regulation. The Hon. Theodore E. Burton, of Ohio, long the chairman of the Rivers and Harbors Committee of the House of Representatives, is named by the President as chairman of this new waterways board. Senators Newlands, of Nevada, and Warner, of Missouri, are appointed, and also the Hon. John H. Bankhead, of Alabama, who is an authority on Mississippi River questions. Other members are General MacKenzie, chief of the War Department Engineers; Dr. W J McGee, the geologist and geographer; Mr. F. H. Newell, director of the Reclamation Service; Mr. Gifford Pinchot, Chief Forester, and Mr. Herbert Knox Smith, Commissioner of Corporations.

*The River
and
Harbor Bill.*

The appropriation for rivers and harbors as finally made at the end of the last Congress amounted to about \$87,000,000. It is a mistake to regard the recent work of Congress in studying this question and making appropriations as futile or improper. In times past a great deal of money was spent wastefully upon small projects of improvement through log-rolling demands; but the more recent river and harbor measures have been in accordance with intelligent work done by the army engineers and conscientious and able efforts on the part of Mr. Burton and members of the committees of both houses. It has always been our view that a great deal more would be accomplished if a plan were adopted under which States and localities would be expected to contribute a part of the cost.

*Army
Engineers
at Panama.*

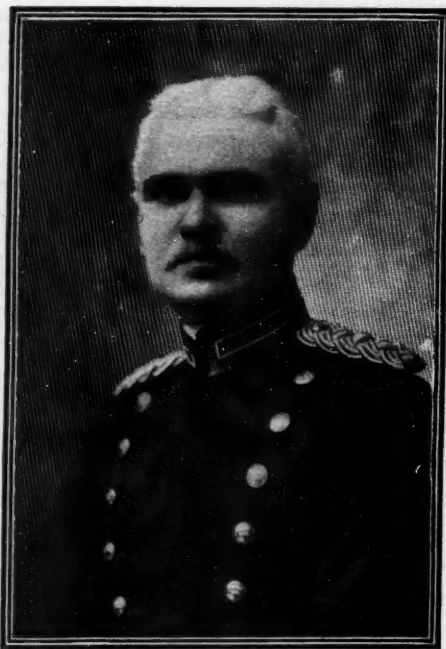
The largest waterway project of the age, obviously, is the Panama Canal. When our pages closed for the press last month it had been announced,—apropos of the retirement of Mr. Shonts as chairman of the Canal Commission,—that the chief engineer, Mr. Stevens, would take his place and carry on the great work. It had been decided not to turn the



HON. THEODORE E. BURTON, OF OHIO.

(Chairman of the River and Harbor Committee, and at the head of the new Waterways Commission.)

work over to contractors at the present time. But before our March issue had reached the hands of its readers circumstances had arisen which obliged the President to make a change and to accept Mr. Stevens's resignation. He was a meritorious engineer and had served very usefully. But, fortunately, there was nothing in the situation which rendered it in any manner difficult for another competent engineer to step in and take his place. It was decided at Washington that the proper thing would be to appoint an army engineer, and Lieut.-Col. George W. Goethals was accordingly selected. Two other army engineers were at the same time chosen as members of the commission,—namely, Majors David DuB. Gaillard and William L. Sibert. All three of these able officers have had great



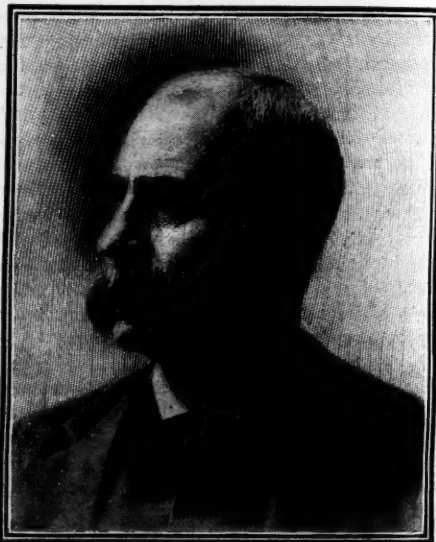
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LIEUT.-COL. GEORGE W. GOETHALS, NOW AT HEAD OF PANAMA-COMMISSION.

experience in river and harbor work, and either of his associates would be competent to take Major Goethals' place in case of his illness or retirement. There has been a good deal of newspaper comment upon the frequent changes in the Canal Commission, but nothing has happened which has not been progressive, and nothing has hurt the continuity of the work. There has been widespread approval of the plan of putting the army engineers in charge. Theirs is the habit of serving the country with the highest skill and no thought of glory or especial reward. Meanwhile another addition has been made to the canal board in the person of the Hon. Joseph C. S. Blackburn, of Kentucky, whose term in the United States Senate expired on March 4. Mr. Blackburn does not belong to the President's party, but he is a public man of great experience and broad views, whose membership in the commission can doubtless be made useful on many accounts. Mr. Jackson Smith, who has been chief of the labor department, is made a full commissioner. The work will be pushed with energy, and it will remain to be seen whether contracts should be let or not.

*The Work
of
Congress.*

The closing session of the Fifty-ninth Congress appropriated not far from a thousand million dollars. The growth in public expenditure has been rapid, but certainly not more rapid than that of the country's resources and its private expenditures. When subjected to analysis, the appropriations do not seem unreasonable. Not much was expected in the direction of general legislation. Yet some valuable measures were passed. The country will observe rather curiously what effect will come from the change in the law regarding denatured alcohol. As passed at the former session, the law made it practically impossible for farmers and small concerns to distill this form of cheap fuel on their own account. As now altered, the law permits such manufacture. It is claimed that some very remarkable consequences may ensue. It will make more difference than most people are aware to have in force the new law which limits the num-



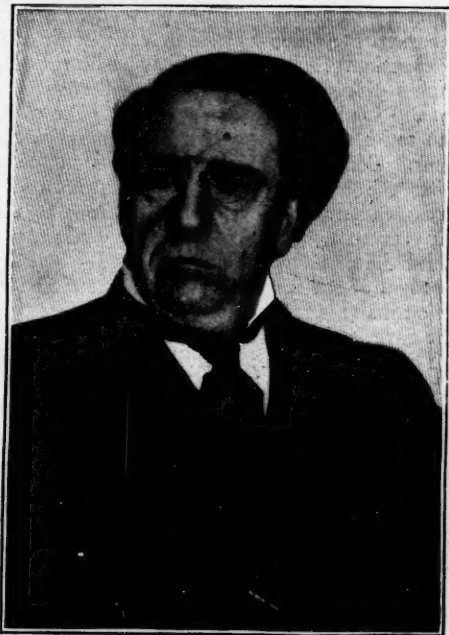
HON. J. C. S. BLACKBURN, OF KENTUCKY.
(Appointed a Panama Commissioner.)

ber of hours of continuous service that railroads may require from locomotive engineers and other train employees. Another enactment in the interest of social welfare is the measure for the investigation of the employment of women and children which is to be made under the direction of the Secretary of Commerce and Labor. The child-labor bill did not come to a vote, but it will be dealt with in the next Congress. The meat in-

spection law is so changed as to require the packers to print on the labels the dates when meats were canned or otherwise prepared for sale. The immigration bill is a measure of very considerable importance, and its provisions are elsewhere explained in this number of the REVIEW in an article which we have secured from Mr. William S. Rossiter. Our readers will remember his remarkable article in last month's REVIEW, entitled "Why We Need the Immigrant."

*Various
Enactments
of Importance.*

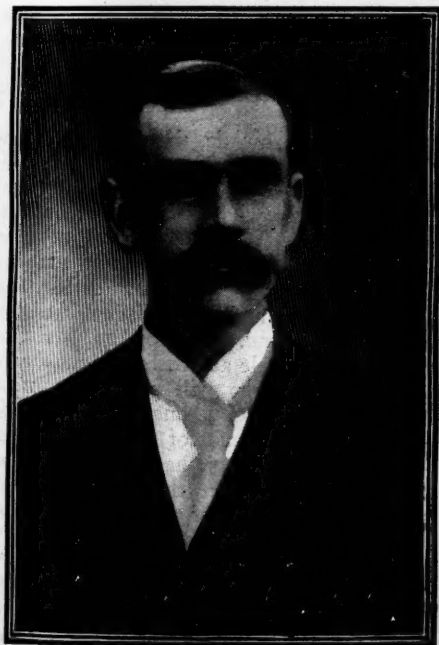
From the standpoint of immediate public policy, the most important feature of the immigration act is the amendment to it under which the President may exclude immigrants from countries issuing passports. It means that Japan issues no passport to laborers to come to the United States, and the President may exclude Japanese laborers whose passports name some other country of destination. This method has been found to put into practical effect what is evidently going to be the permanent policy of the United States, namely, the prevention of the coming in large numbers to this country of Asiatic laborers, whether Chinese or of other nation-



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HON. JOHN C. SPOONER, OF WISCONSIN.

(After long and brilliant service as a leading Senator and statesman at Washington, Mr. Spooner has resigned his seat and retired to the practice of law.)



SENATOR REED SMOOT, OF UTAH.

(After several years' attempt to unseat Mr. Smoot, the Senate has sustained him.)

ality. At last the long-demanded service pension for veterans of the civil war has been placed upon the statute books. To state the terms of the act in brief, it is merely to be said that any veteran, when he reaches the age of 62, who had served ninety days in the army, may receive a pension of \$12 a month, regardless of the question whether or not he is in need, or is disabled by reason of his war service. The amount is increased to \$15 a month at the age of seventy, and to \$20 a month after the age of seventy-five. The pension bill for the coming year amounts to about \$146,000,000. The currency act is not of a radical character, but it removes certain restrictions. Heretofore the Secretary of the Treasury could deposit in the banks of the country moneys collected from internal revenue sources, but not those from customs. The new law permits the Secretary to distribute all public money at his discretion. This will make it possible to keep larger sums in circulation at times of business demand. The new act much increases the amount of circulating notes that the banks may retire monthly. Originally the restriction was intended to

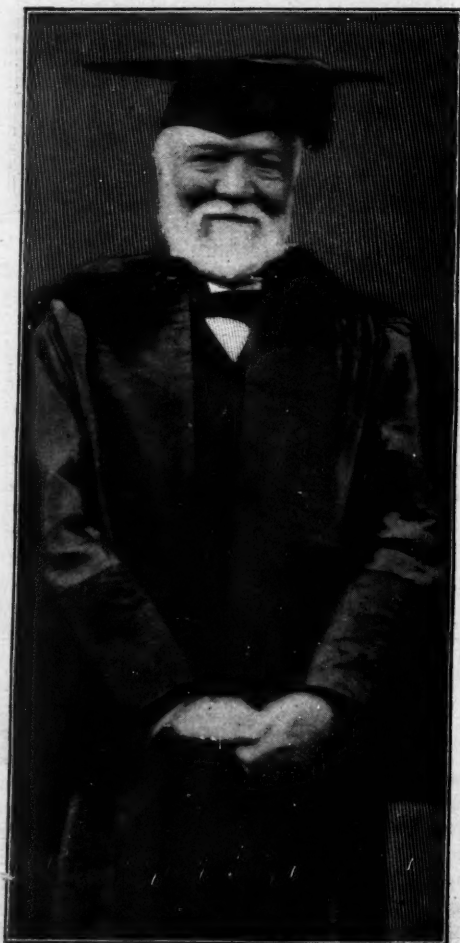
prevent contraction of the currency. But it worked the other way, interfering with easy expansion. The banks will issue larger volumes of circulating notes when there is demand for money, if it is made easy for them to retire these notes when the demand slackens. Congress was rather timid about passing the bill increasing the future salaries of members of the two houses from \$5000 a year to \$7500. It was a proper measure and the country approves of it. The disapproval of a salary increase on a certain occasion many years ago was due to the fact that it gave back pay to the men passing the bill. The increased cost of living at Washington has proved a hardship to public servants.

*On Behalf
of Peace
and Order.*

The ratification of the treaty with San Domingo, under which our Government may exercise certain financial control, is a matter of great importance and will have future consequences that will make for peace and order in the West Indies. The Algeciras treaty also was duly confirmed. The ship-subsidy bill was not enacted. Provision was made for two battleships much larger than any now in our navy. Our confirmation of the Algeciras treaty, our valuable work of an international character in San Domingo, our protection of all interests, foreign and domestic, in Cuba, and our varying successes as peacemaker in Central America, together with our fortunate removal of all danger of strain with Japan, and our progress in negotiations with the Dominion and Great Britain, are some of the matters which will give us enhanced prestige at The Hague when the second great congress of the nations meets there in the early summer. It can be shown that since the first Hague Conference we have done a good deal to promote the cause of international peace. Besides Mr. Choate, General Porter, and Judge Rose, we shall be represented at The Hague by Mr. Hill, our Minister to Holland, and Mr. Buchanan, who was chairman of our delegation at the recent Pan-American Conference at Rio. Gen. G. B. Davis and Rear-Admiral Sperry will represent us as military and naval experts.

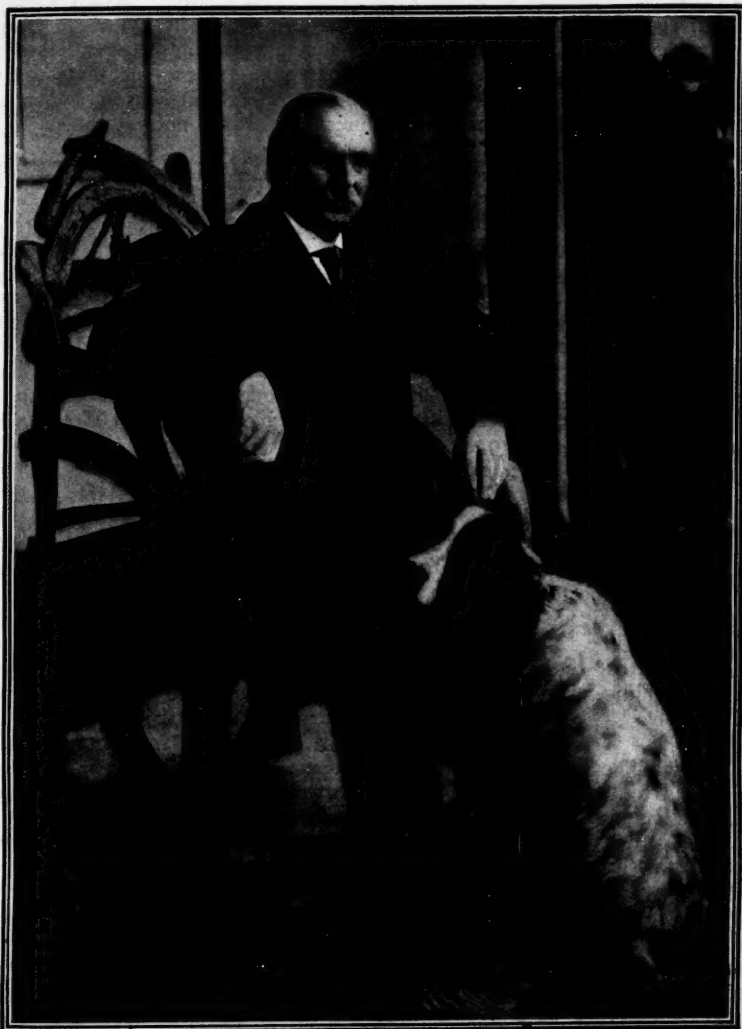
*Mr. Carnegie's
Institutions.*

Meanwhile, the unofficial groups and organizations that are especially interested in the cause of peace will hold what is called the national Arbitration and Peace Congress at New York, on the 14th day of the present month. It will be under the presidency of Mr. Andrew Carnegie, and many distinguished foreigners will attend. On April 11, Mr. Carnegie will assemble at Pittsburg a number of notable guests who will participate in the opening of the new buildings of the Carnegie Institute. An account of the wonderful institution Mr. Carnegie has been building up at Pittsburg has more than once been presented to the readers of this magazine. Elsewhere in the present number of the REVIEW we present an article from the pen of the well-known artist and critic, Mr. Frank Fowler, who writes of the Carnegie Institute from the artistic standpoint. The Greater Pittsburg has its chief center of attraction in the splendid library, gallery, and museum that Mr. Carnegie has provided.



MR. ANDREW CARNEGIE.

(Who is especially prominent this month by reason of several important occasions.)



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EX-PRESIDENT CLEVELAND, FROM A RECENT PHOTOGRAPH.

Mr. Carnegie will be seventy years old next November, and he was never at any time more vigorous of mind or more actively and influentially concerned with affairs of large significance. Ex-President Cleveland was seventy years old on the 18th of March. He is a great favorite in the university town of Princeton. As our only living ex-President, he maintains in the country's regard and respect a very lofty position. President Eliot, of Harvard, was seventy-three last month; Mark Twain is in his seventy-second year, and Mr. Bryce, the new British Ambassador, will be seventy next year. These and many other men of great intellectual activity and public usefulness are showing that old age need not arrive until long after the period of three score and ten. There has been much comment of late upon the continued strength and brilliancy of the writings of Prof. Goldwin Smith, who is in his eighty-fourth year. Dr. Edward Everett Hale is a little older. Senator Allison is seventy-seven; President Diaz and the Emperor Francis-Joseph are seventy-six, and, in short, the list of active and prominent personages between the ages of seventy and eighty is a long one.

*Mr. Cleveland
and Others
at Seventy.*

*American
Cotton
Supremacy.*

An appropriation of \$12,000,000 by the German Government,—on condition that German manufacturers raise a larger sum,—to encourage cotton-growing in the colonies of the Fatherland, has called attention anew to the supremacy of America in the production of this great staple. In average years the fields of the United States produce more than three-quarters of the cotton crop of the world. We hold our own, although, since our Civil War, many and costly attempts have been made in various parts of Asia and Africa to compete with our cotton-growing States. To-day Texas alone produces nearly as much as all non-American countries combined. During the year ending September 1, 1906, our cotton crop aggregated 11,319,860 bales, of which 6,716,351 bales were exported to Europe. During the same period, the East Indies, Egypt, and the rest of the world produced 2,562,000 bales. The production of Russia is increasing rapidly. According to Baron Kaneko, three-quarters of all the raw cotton used in the Mikado's empire comes from this country. The fact underlying the whole situation is that the world's demand for cotton is expanding far more rapidly than the world's supply.

*War in
Central
America.*

It is difficult to clearly understand the real causes of the war now being waged between Honduras and Nicaragua, with Guatemala, Salvador, and Costa Rica more or less actively involved. During July and August of last year, it will be remembered, a revolution in Guatemala finally resulted in war between that republic and Salvador, into which Honduras was drawn. In 1903 a dispute over territory between Nicaragua and Honduras was submitted to King Alfonso of Spain for arbitration. That monarch decided in favor of Honduras. Nicaragua, however, never really acquiesced in this decision, and this fact, together with the ambitious designs of a number of Central-American politicians and military leaders, has probably been the underlying cause of the present trouble. There was, of course, the Honduran mule which, we are gravely told by the newspaper correspondents, was stolen by citizens of Nicaragua. But even in Central America there had to be a deeper-lying cause for war than a mule. President Zelaya, of Nicaragua, is known to cherish an ambitious scheme for a Central-American union, in which, of course, he and his party

would be dominant figures. A number of minor engagements between Honduran and Nicaraguan troops took place late in February and early in March, and, as we go to press, the war is not yet ended.

*Mexico as
"Guardian of
the Peace."*

While not contemplating any active interference, the governments of the United States and Mexico have been exerting their best efforts to settle the difficulties. The neighboring republic of Mexico is, as time goes by, being more and more regarded in the light of one of the "monitors" of the Monroe Doctrine, a sort of tacitly recognized guardian of the peace among the republics between our frontier and Panama. Señor Creel (see our article on page 489 this month), the new Mexican Ambassador to Washington, has been assiduous in his efforts to smooth out the trouble. Perhaps, after all, there will be no permanent peace in Central America until, to quote Gen. Domingo Vasquez, ex-President of Honduras, "there is a strong arm thrown around the five republics. There can be but one end to these affairs, and that is the establishment of a protectorate by the United States, and the sooner this condition of affairs arrives the better off will be Central-American nations." It is interesting to note that the Louisiana State Lottery has finally died in Honduras. It was driven from this country in 1892, but was transferred to the Central-American republic, where it flourished until its suppression in the early days of February.

*London's
Municipal
Election.*

Proceedings in the British Parliament divided interest with the London municipal election during the spring weeks in England. Elections for membership in the County Council, held on March 2, resulted in a substantial victory for the so-called municipal reformers, who now have 85 out of 120 seats. They will control the municipal affairs of London,—the greater city and the boroughs. This election, which has been widely heralded as a "socialistic rout" and "municipal reaction," was the result, primarily, of an increase in the tax-rate necessitated by the extensive improvements made in the greater city, its parks, highways, transportation, gas, and electric systems. Under the régime of the County Council (superseding the old, antiquated Metropolitan Board of Works) the Progressives, as they were called, held control for eighteen years of all the municipal

activities of London. The reform and re-making of the British metropolis was sadly needed, but it was extensive. While the citizens of London cannot be said to have decisively and permanently rejected the policy of municipal ownership, they certainly have administered a check to certain injudicious experiments in municipal operation. There has been, also, a reaction in the metropolitan district from the wave of radicalism which two years ago swept the Liberal party into power by such tremendous majorities.

*Reorganizing
Britain's
Army.*

In Parliament a number of highly important national and international problems are receiving consideration. Secretary of War Haldane's scheme for a reorganization of the British army is being discussed with great heat. Mr. Haldane's idea, in brief, is to convert those divisions of the British forces which are known as the militia, the yeomanry, and the volunteers into a territorial army of 300,000 men. The field force, or regular army, would be 160,000 strong. It is not necessary to go into other details of the scheme further than to say that the plan would result in a slight reduction in the number of men, probably a considerable increase in the efficiency of the army, and a reduction in expenses of from five to six million dollars annually. What Parliament will do with Secretary Haldane's scheme remains to be seen. Meanwhile, although lending a willing ear to the advocates of army reduction, the British admiralty goes on building warships. The building item of the navy estimate for 1907-8 alone is \$40,000,000.

*Disestablishment
Proposed.*

A motion unique in the history of the House of Commons was introduced on February 27. It declared the sense of the British people to be in favor of the disestablishment and disendowment of the Established Church in England and Wales. It is true that the government refused to assume any responsibility for the motion, but it is also true that Chief Secretary for Ireland Birrell, than whom there is no one higher in the councils of the Campbell-Bannerman ministry, spoke warmly in favor of it. The motion was carried by a vote of 198 to 90. So far as Wales is concerned it has been generally understood that the present Liberal ministry is committed to the policy of disestablishment, but official separation of government and church in England is another matter. The prepon-

derance of Anglicans in the Liberal ranks will probably preclude any radical action by the present government. Of course the attitude of the established church in the matter of the Liberal educational program has seriously tried the patience of the present British Government. Since, however, it is not at all improbable that the Anglican church commands a majority of the voters of the Kingdom,—at least in England proper,—disestablishment is probably not an event of the near future, at least not before the abolition or drastic reform of the House of Lords has been accomplished.

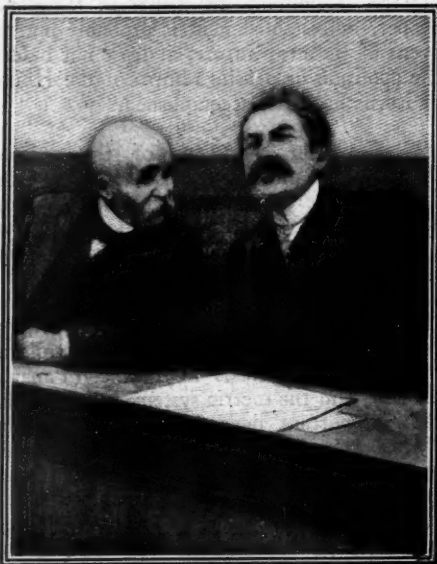
*The Coming
Colonial
Conference.*

On the 15th of the present month the British Colonial Conference will begin its sessions in London. The program includes discussion of the following topics: The constitution of the conference, including the question of an imperial council; preferential trade and the connected coasting and treaty questions; defense; naturalization; immigration; British interests in Pacific (Panama Canal), and the metric system. Already the three important dependencies of Australia, New Zealand, and Cape Colony have declared their intention of advocating the formation of an imperial council for the British Empire, an imperial system of defense, and the adoption of the principle of preferential trade between the mother country and the colonies. Just what our neighbor, the Dominion of Canada, will do, cannot be said at this writing, since no program has as yet been published. Her Prime Minister, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, however, and four of his colleagues, will speak for her at the conference. The status of imperial and local rule in the Transvaal, with particular reference to the recent election, is set forth by Mr. W. T. Stead on another page (428) this month.

*Strength of the
Clemenceau
Ministry.*

While the French Government and the Vatican have been marking time in the struggle over the disposition of ecclesiastical property in the republic the Clémenceau ministry has been strengthening its position with the French voters. An unexpected and virtually unanimous strike of the electricians of Paris left the French capital in darkness all the night of March 8 and caused the stoppage of most of the business, including, of course, the theaters and the publication of newspapers. The workers of Paris are very strongly unionized. The striking electri-

cians demanded that in carrying out recent concessions from the municipal council the electrical company recognize the eight-hour day and old-age pensions, which are compulsory conditions of all government work. This the company refused to do. The strikers grew riotous and threatened all sorts of dire vengeance. Premier Clémenceau's vigor-



AN INTERPELLATION IN THE FRENCH PARLIAMENT.

(Premier Clémenceau and Education Minister Briand listening to a question as to governmental policy on the religious question.)

ous police and military measures soon righted the situation, and upon a vote of confidence put by the Socialist leader Jaures in the Chamber of Deputies the Premier was approved by a vote of 378 against 68. Later the electrical company acceded to the demands of the men. The sympathy of the civilized world went out to the French people during early March, when the news came of the terrible accident to the two French warships *Jean Bart* and the *Jena*. The *Jean Bart* foundered and will be a total loss, although her crew was saved. An explosion on the battleship *Jena* (March 12), one of the finest vessels of the French navy, resulted in the total destruction of the vessel and the loss of 118 lives. The republic also lost last month one of her finest-souled statesmen. On the same day as the blowing up of the *Jena* M. Jean Paul Casimir-Perier, ex-President, died in Paris.

*Franco-American
Cordiality.*

A subject of particular current interest to both Frenchmen and Americans is the announcement of the completed arrangements for the International Maritime Exposition to be held at Bordeaux, France, between May 1 and November 1 of the present year. There the republic will pay a high tribute to Robert Fulton, the inventor of the steamboat, who, it will be remembered, began his experiments in navigation upon French rivers. The United States will have the place of honor at this exposition, which will devote a great deal of attention to Fulton relics and memorabilia. It is interesting to note in passing, also, that this year's French lecturer at Harvard on the Hyde Foundation, who began the series late in February, is the Vicomte Georges d'Avenel, who has rendered to France services similar to those which Thorold Rogers rendered England. M. d'Avenel is the author of a monumental work in several volumes which not only tabulates the cost of living and the sources of income of every class of French society from the year 1200 up to the beginning of the nineteenth century, but also gives a vivid picture of the ordinary daily life of every class. He has supplemented this work by a study, of which five volumes have thus far appeared, entitled, "*Le Mécanisme de la Vie Moderne*," in which he has applied the same method to describing his contemporaries as he employed in the earlier work in describing their ancestors. These two works entitle him to be ranked as the first social historian of the republic.

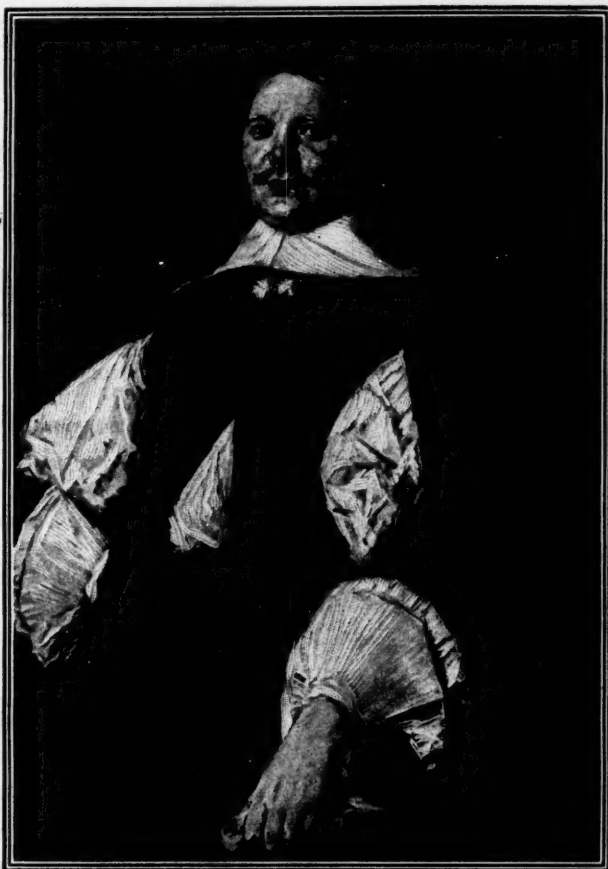
*Religious
Apathy
in France.*

The religious situation in France is slowly clarifying. It is, however, a remarkable comment on the religious state of the French people that, with the exception of certain sections in Brittany, the people at large, particularly the educated classes, have long ceased to take any active interest in the Christian religion. Frenchmen who are nominally Catholic regard its practice as consisting chiefly in rites and ceremonies,—a kind of convention which ought to be correctly performed, but which has no direct, practical bearing upon everyday life. Hence the astonishing absence of any strong popular feeling against the government, which has expelled the religious orders, disestablished the church, disendowed the clergy, and laid profane hands upon church property. The government believes that, so long

as it is not driven to shut up the churches or to imprison the clergy, it will not be halted by the electorate. Hence, the struggle, so far as it is intelligible to outside observers, is like a game in which the object of the church is to compel the state to make martyrs, and the object of the state is to evade that undesirable consummation. France is more than 95 per cent. Catholic, nominally, and yet the voters have time and again supported the government in its separation campaign, which the authorities at Rome call sacrilege and profanation. The significant happening of the month in this struggle was the admission, by Pope Pius, in an interview with a visiting American prelate, that the French clergy have been largely to blame for the present trouble, they having "meddled in politics," contrary to the explicit advice of Pope Leo and himself.

*Holland as a
Center of
World Interest*

Events of far wider human interest and significance than the fall of ministries or the rejection of budgets for unsuccessful colonial ventures have drawn the attention of the world to the Low Countries,—Holland and Belgium,—during recent weeks. Before long the second International Peace Conference will meet at The Hague. Meanwhile, the Carnegie Palace of Peace is being erected from a new modified design by the French architect, L. M. Cordonnier. Almost before the Hollanders have forgotten the ceremonies and elation of the Rembrandt tercentenary of last year they find themselves in the midst of celebrating another three-hundredth anniversary, that of the birth (March 24, 1607) of their great Admiral Michael Adrianson. This great seaman, one of the greatest of all history, who saved the Dutch commonwealth, crushed the naval power of Spain,



ADMIRAL DE RUYTER, AFTER FRANZ HALS.

(The famous Dutch admiral, the three hundredth anniversary of whose birth all Holland celebrated last month. The painting is now in the collection of Lord Spencer.)

defeated the combined fleets of France and Britain, and "swept the Channel of Englishmen," is known to the world by his name de Ruyter, "the rider." The legend is that his father and mother, because of parental opposition to their marriage, fled many miles astride of the same horse to be united; hence the name of their eldest son. The Dutch have always made heroes of men of strong physical courage. They have been almost won over by the hitherto unpopular Prince Consort, Henry of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, who acquitted himself so gallantly in helping to rescue the survivors of the ill-fated Great Eastern Railway steamship *Berlin*, which went ashore on February 21, off the Hook of Holland, 128 persons losing their lives.

Recent
Progress
in Belgium.

More than once after the Dutch had won their independence from Spain did the Southern Netherlanders, now known as the Belgians, petition the Dutch States-General to be admitted into the commonwealth. Their only reply was the enactment of commercial regulations which practically destroyed the trade pre-

of a quarter of a million. Struggles with Holland, however, brought about its decline. The new canal, which is 8 miles long, 220 feet wide, and 26 feet deep, will no doubt stir into new life the old home of Caxton and John van Eyck, and restore some of its former greatness.



QUEEN WILHELMINA, OF HOLLAND, AND HER CONSORT, PRINCE HENRY.

(From a photograph taken soon after the Prince's efforts to rescue the passengers of the wrecked steamship *Berlin*.)

eminence of a number of Belgian cities. Now, through fear of Germany, we are told that a Belgian-Dutch alliance has practically been concluded. The commission of fifty, representing both countries, which has been sitting in Brussels during the past two months, early in March concluded their negotiations and came to an understanding upon postal, telegraph, telephone, and railway rates, and identical labor legislation, copyright laws, and customs tariff. The same dispatches bring the news of the formal opening of the Bruges Canal. During the fourteenth century Bruges was the commercial center of Europe, and had a population

The New
Spanish
Minister.

Señor Ramon Piña y Millet, the new Spanish Minister to the United States, who was officially presented to President Roosevelt last month, declares that his country has prospered greatly since the war over Cuba. The Spanish people feel that in every way they have actually entered upon a new era of progress. Liberalism has come to stay in Spain, although particular Liberal ministries may be defeated. Señor Maura, the present Premier, who is a Conservative, believes that the late Liberal ministry erred in pushing its anti-clerical program so far. He has announced that he and his party will endeavor to carry out a number of Liberal, even radical, reforms. Temporarily, however, the church question is to be relegated to the rear. The general elections, held during the first week of last month, were generally favorable to the candidates of the party in power. This has been taken by King Alfonso to indicate a popular disapproval of the lengths to which the anti-clerical campaign of the Liberals had gone. Accordingly, he has, by royal decree, abrogated the former decree (of August, 1906), which permitted Catholics to contract civil marriages, a pronunciamiento which aroused the most bitter opposition of the Catholic Church.

The World
Campaign for
Woman Suffrage.

A good deal of real progress in the cause of woman suffrage has been recorded during the weeks just passed. In King Edward's speech from the throne upon the reassembling of the British Parliament, his Majesty promised to introduce a bill authorizing women to sit on local governing bodies in England. On the 8th of last month the bill granting parliamentary suffrage to women on the same terms as now possessed by men came up for second reading in the House of Commons and was hotly debated. The close of the session found it still under debate. Even this progress, however, is regarded in the light of a victory by the British "suffragettes," and they are continuing their agitation. It is not likely that if the bill had been sent to the Lords it would have secured their

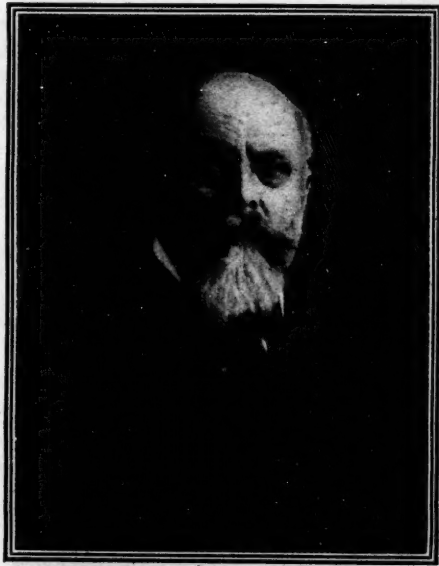
approval, since the upper house in the British Parliament is strongly opposed to woman suffrage. The Premier, however, has publicly repudiated "the long prevalent idea that woman should be treated as a Uitlander in the British community." In the rest of the world solid progress has been made. On March 15, as we tell on another page this month, the women of Finland exercised the full franchise rights in an election. Finland is the first European country to grant unlimited suffrage rights to its women. In Italy the Chamber of Deputies spent the week ending March 1 in hot debate on the question, adjourning, however, before any definite legislation had been enacted. Even in Russia the peasant woman is an actual claimant for the suffrage right. Elsewhere we reproduce a remarkable petition sent to the Duma by a number of these peasant women.

*The New
German
Reichstag.*

As might have been expected, the proceedings of the new German Reichstag, which began its sessions on February 19, were marked by a sharp debate between Chancellor von Bülow and Herr Bebel, the Socialist leader. The latter openly accused the government of exerting unfair and improper influence during the elections. Herr Bebel added that, despite these unfair methods and in the face of the fact that it took 70,000 electors to return a Socialist member and only 50,000 or less to seat one of the government supporters, the Socialist vote had increased until every third man in Germany over twenty-five years of age was a Social-Democrat. Let those who regard the election as a brilliant government victory, concluded Herr Bebel, remember the fact that 6,000,000 votes were registered against the government and only 5,000,000 for it. In reply, the Chancellor ascribed the defeat of the socialists "not so much to economic doctrines as to their policy of terrorism."



LUCKY BÜLOW! UNHAPPY STOLYPIN!
(Ullrich's portrayal of the way the German and Russian parliaments regard their premiers.)

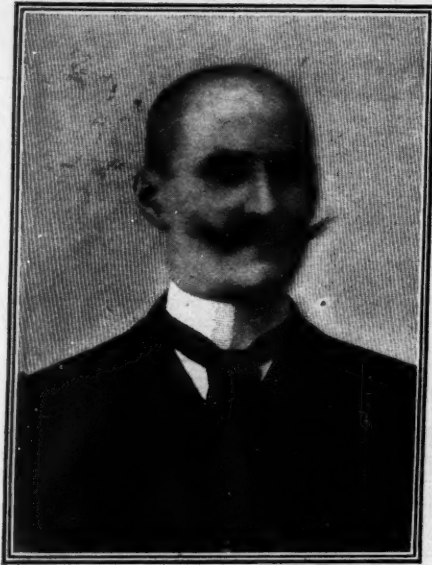


COUNT UDO VON STOLBERG-WERNIGERODE, PRESIDENT
OF THE NEWLY ELECTED GERMAN REICHSTAG.

In the Kaiser's speech his Majesty announced his intention to "respect conscientiously all constitutional rights and privileges." He regarded the results of the elections as indicating that "the German people desire the honor and welfare of the nation to be firmly and faithfully guarded without petty party spirit." The new president of the Reichstag, Count Udo von Stolberg-Wernigerode, is a member of one of the oldest families of the empire and has served in Parliament for thirty continuous years. He is sixty-seven years of age, and one of the Privy Councilors of State. The supplementary budget for the South-African colonial expenses, which, it will be remembered, was the cause of the dissolution of the former Reichstag, was passed in the first days of the session.

*Russia's
Second
Duma.*

In the Russian Duma, as in other Continental European parliaments, the president sits at the center of a semi-circle of seats, those on his right being occupied by the Conservatives, those on his left by the Radicals, and those immediately in front by the Moderates, or Independents. Hence, the origin of the terms, "the Right," "the Left," and "the Center," meaning "Conservative," "Radical," and "Moderate." President Feodor Golovin, of the new Duma, finds at his right



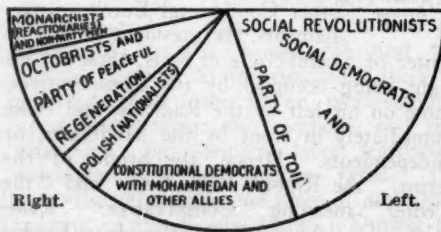
FEODOR GOLOVIN, PRESIDENT OF THE SECOND RUSSIAN DUMA.

hand two groups of Conservatives,—the Reactionaries (standing for the official classes) and the Moderates or Octobrists (named from their adherence to the Czar's freedom manifesto of October, 1905). This class consists of nobles, land-owners, and peasant money-lenders. With the Reactionaries, they occupy 100 seats. Next to them are the forty-three Polish Nationalists. Next are the Constitutional Democrats, with their Mohammedan and other allies,—the whole group known as the Center, Poles included, numbering 170. This group is made up of the professional classes, many land-owners, and most of the merchants. To the left of the President sit the Radical group, numbering 192 in all and including the Social Revolutionists, the Social-Democrats, and the Group of Toil, made up of peasants, city and

town wage-earners, and some few professional men. President Golovin, who has been at the head of the Moscow zemstvo, or provincial council, for years, and has acquired a good deal of parliamentary experience, is a member of one of the oldest Russian families. He is a man of independent means, and one of the foremost Russian Liberals, respected by men of all parties.

"Don't Lend Them Any More Money!"

The first sessions of the new Duma, which opened on March 5, were marked by dignity, restraint, and a sober attention to the business of legislation, which augur well for the future. The Russian people, says Dr. Dillon, demand that Russia shall cease to be a constitutional realm governed by an autocrat whose power is unlimited. The nation's chosen representatives, however, have learned by the stern lesson of the first Duma, and they will not demand the impossible. It now seems probable that because of their high intelligence and training, as well as the moderateness of their views, the Constitutional Democrats will be able to form a political combination by which they will again control the Parliament. The secretary of the Duma, indeed, by far the most important individual after the president, is Ivan Chelnikov, a Constitutional Democrat from Moscow. The spirit of the new body was shown by the shouts of the peasant members as they marched to the Tauride Palace for the opening session. Recognizing some representatives of foreign nations, including our own Ambassador, in the spectators, they shouted: "Don't lend them any more money!" This is the keynote, also, of the campaign being carried on in this country by a number of prominent revolutionists, whose labors and careers are referred to on another page this month. Premier Stolypin read before the Duma (on March 19) the ministerial program of legislation. The government, he declared, is creating such standards of life as will change Russia into a legally constitutional state, the chief task of the ministry being to co-ordinate the old and new principles of government. The assembled members listened to the speech of the Premier with respect and attention. They hope much, but will await actualities. Liberty promised is not liberty secured, as the Russian nation has learned on more than one occasion in the past. The rest of the world sincerely hopes that these are not simply more promises made to be broken.



POLITICAL PARTIES IN THE NEW DUMA.

"Trouble
in the
Balkans."

The ways of the Russian reactionaries are devious and dark. One of their methods, however, is now very well known. It is a favorite trick to attempt to discredit the Liberal movement in Russia by stirring up disorder and inciting pogroms, or massacres of Jews, both at home and in the neighboring Balkan states. In Roumania, where the Jew is even more cordially hated than he is in Russia, the so-called Union of Russian People has secret agents at work. It is now a pretty well established fact that the terrible massacres of Jews at Padihilo (only thirty miles from the famous, or infamous, Kishinev) and Elizabethgrad, on March 17, were deliberately instigated by Muscovite reactionaries. Outbreaks of this sort are most liable to happen at this season, near Easter, when the ignorant Russian muzhik is accustomed to celebrate the ascension of Christ by murdering the Jews. Signs of more than usual unrest come from the Balkans this spring. The assassination of the Bulgarian Premier Petkov at Sofia (on March 11) and the reports of unrelenting persecution by the Turks of their subject Christian peoples may portend the early outbreak of the long-heralded Balkan war. The Austrian frontier guards have been doubled in anticipation of serious developments.

India and
"Pan-
Aryanism."

Every once in a while the western world receives an inkling that all is not well with British rule in India. One of those incidents, apparently unimportant, but of vast significance in a country like India, was the recent sentence to long imprisonment and heavy fine of the proprietor and editor of the *Punjabi*, a native journal, "for exciting hatred against the government and the European community." This took place at Lahore and precipitated a riot of dangerous proportions. Just how far the economic exploitation of India by British capital and trade has aroused the natives and solidified their patriotism it would not be easy to say. Prominent Hindus in New York, however, believe that an independent India is not such a chimera as one might imagine. In order to make known to the western world, particularly America, the trials and aspirations of the Indian peoples, there has been established in New York the Pan-Aryan Association. Persia also comes within the scope of this

society's activity. Lectures on Oriental topics will form its chief work, but it will also be the endeavor of the Pan-Aryan Association to afford to students coming here from India and Persia every possible facility for learning the various arts and industries of the United States. Persistent reports from Persia that the new Shah is having trouble with his Parliament and that Russian intrigue is being renewed at the Persian capital may portend significant international development in the near east with which Americans will want to be familiar.

Russia, Japan,
and
Manchuria.

Japan's pressing national problems arise from the purely economic movement of her people. Eastward and westward her overcrowded regions spread their population; eastward and westward she looks toward her points of perplexity. With the proclamation of President Roosevelt, on March 14, announcing that he refused admission to Japanese immigrants who, our authorities had reason to believe, were attempting to use their Filipino and Hawaiian passports to enter the continental territory of the United States, our relations with Japan entered upon a new phase. Meanwhile, to the westward, the status of Manchuria remains unsettled. According to the terms of the treaty of Portsmouth, both Russia and Japan must complete the withdrawal of their troops from Manchuria before the end of the present month. There has been some movement of the troops of both nations, but shrewd observers of Oriental conditions are contending that neither power actually intends to carry out the spirit of the treaty. Mr. Thomas F. Millard, a newspaper correspondent, who is a recognized authority on Manchurian conditions before and after the war, observes (in the March *Scribner's Magazine*) that, while the Japanese Government may honestly intend to evacuate the Chinese mainland, there are internal political conditions and combinations which may prevent the fulfillment of her word pledged to the world. As far as Russia is concerned, he declares, her attitude will not differ materially from what it has been in the past, except to be "more amenable to outside opinion and influence." Russia will "watch Japan, and as Japan is forced to leave she will reluctantly follow. Should Japan retain her hold, Russia will also."

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From February 17 to March 19, 1907.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

February 18.—The House adopts the conference report on the Immigration bill containing a provision for the settlement of the Japanese school question (see page 469).

February 19.—In the Senate, Mr. Smoot (Rep., Utah) defines his attitude in regard to the Mormon Church.

February 20.—The Senate, by vote of 42 to 28, confirms the title of Reed Smoot (Rep.), of Utah, to his seat; the Naval and River and Harbor Appropriation bills are passed. . . . The House passes the Post Office Appropriation bill.

February 21-22.—The Senate considers the Agricultural Appropriation bill. . . . The House debates the Sundry Civil Appropriation bill and passes 360 private pension bills.

February 23.—The House passes the Esch bill regulating the hours of railroad labor.

February 25.—The Senate passes the Agricultural, Post Office, and Pension Appropriation bills and the Philippine Bank bill, and ratifies the treaty with Santo Domingo at an executive session.

February 26.—The Senate passes the Aldrich Financial bill and the Sundry Civil Appropriation bill. . . . The House begins debate on the Ship Subsidy bill.

February 27.—The Senate passes the bill establishing the foundation for the promotion of industrial peace and the Expatriation bill. . . . The House continues debate on the Ship Subsidy bill.

February 28.—The Senate passes a bill extending Government aid to the Alaska-Yukon Expedition.

March 1.—The Senate passes the Denatured Alcohol bill. . . . The House passes the Ship Subsidy bill, by a vote of 155 to 144, and the General Deficiency Appropriation bill.

March 2.—The Senate passes the General Deficiency Appropriation bill. . . . The House, by a vote of 160 to 72, passes the Aldrich Currency bill as received from the Senate.

March 3.—Democratic members of the Senate filibuster against the Ship Subsidy bill. . . . The House, by a vote of 186 to 66, passes the Philippine Bank bill.

March 4.—The Fifty-ninth Congress comes to an end with the usual ceremonies in both branches.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

February 19.—United States Senator Bailey, of Texas, appears before the investigating committee at Austin, Texas, and replies to the charges preferred against him by Representative Cocke.

February 20.—Governor Hughes, of New York, sends a message to the State Senate asking

for the removal of Otto Kelsey as State Superintendent of Insurance.

February 23.—Chicago Democrats renominate Edward F. Dunne for Mayor.

February 25.—The United States Supreme Court decides that under the rate law all complaints against railroads must be made through the Interstate Commerce Commission. . . . The Texas Senate votes to discharge the committee investigating the charges against United States Senator Bailey.

February 26.—It is announced at Washington that all bids for the construction of the Panama Canal have been rejected, that the resignation of Chief Engineer Stevens has been accepted, and that Major Goethals, an army engineer, has been appointed to succeed him, with two other army engineers as assistants; the appointment of Senator Blackburn, of Kentucky, on the Canal Commission, is also announced. . . . The New York Court of Appeals decides in favor of George W. Perkins in the matter of the charge of grand larceny made against him in connection with the payment of funds of the New York Life Insurance Company to the Republican National Committee's campaign fund in 1904.

February 27.—It is announced that the Administration at Washington will press the prosecution of officials of the tobacco trust in New York.

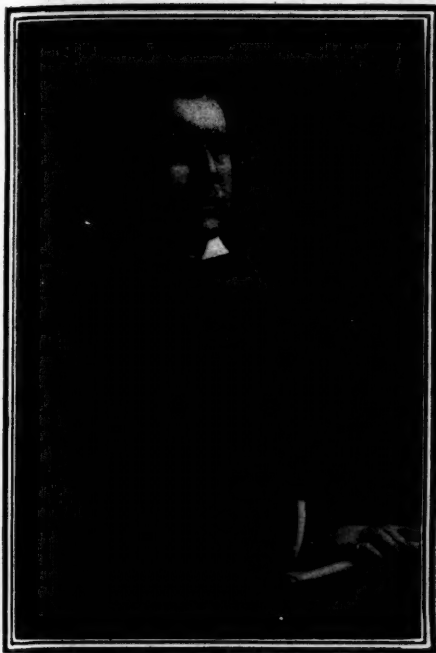
March 2.—The California Legislature votes in favor of the removal of the State capital from Sacramento to Berkeley. . . . Chicago Republicans nominate Frederick A. Busse for Mayor.

March 3.—United States Senator John C. Spooner, of Wisconsin, sends to Governor Davidson his resignation, to take effect on May 1, next.

March 4.—Secretary of the Treasury Shaw and Secretary of the Interior Hitchcock retire from the cabinet, the former being succeeded by Postmaster-General Cortelyou and the latter by Commissioner of Corporations Garfield, while George von L. Meyer becomes Postmaster-General to succeed Mr. Cortelyou. . . . The trial of the Standard Oil Company on the charge of receiving rebates is begun in the United States Court at Chicago. . . . W. A. Martin, a member of the Pittsburgh Common Council, is sentenced to three years in prison for soliciting a bribe.

March 5.—President Roosevelt appoints Regis H. Post to succeed Beekman Winthrop as Governor of Porto Rico when the latter becomes Assistant Secretary of the Treasury.

March 7.—The 2-cent passenger fare bill passed by the Nebraska Legislature becomes a law; the railroads in Nebraska issue circulars abolishing all classes of reduced fares. . . . The new Panama Canal Commission is completed by the appointment of Rear-Admiral Harry H. Rousseau in place of Rear-Admiral Endicott. . . . The New York Assembly passes the New York



Photograph by Morris B. Parkinson.

THE LATE THOMAS BAILEY ALDRICH.

City Police bill, known as Commissioner Bingham's bill, by a vote of 92 to 47.

March 11.—The Pennsylvania Supreme Court decides that the act providing for a Greater Pittsburgh is constitutional....Governor Gillett, of California, sends to the Legislature a message from President Roosevelt asking that further action against the Japanese be suspended....Investigation of the Brownsville affair is resumed by the Senate Committee on Military Affairs....President Roosevelt, Attorney-General Bonaparte, and Secretary Straus hold conferences with South Carolina officials on the subject of assisted immigration.

March 12.—President Roosevelt modifies his recent orders withdrawing coal lands from entry, ordering the opening of about 28,000,000 acres on which the Geological Survey had reported.

March 13.—Secretary Taft orders the literal enforcement of the Eight-Hour law on all Government contracts....Secretary of the Treasury Cortelyou announces that the retirement of currency provided for under last fall's order will be postponed.

March 14.—As a measure for the relief of the money market, Secretary Cortelyou offers to redeem \$25,000,000 4 per cent. Government bonds.

March 16.—President Roosevelt has a conference with Governor Deneen and Attorney-General Stead, of Illinois, on the railroad situation....The President announces the appointment of a commission to study the question of the proper control and utilization of the water-

ways of the country....Governor Johnson, of Minnesota, proposes a national conference on the relations of railroads to the federal and State governments.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

February 19.—The French Government's policy in regard to the Separation law is approved by the Chamber of Deputies by a majority of 351....The German Reichstag is opened by the Kaiser....Returns from the final elections to the Russian Duma indicate a large Radical majority; the Nationalists are successful in Poland against the Socialists and the Jews.

February 20.—The elections to the first legislative assembly under the new constitution take place throughout the Transvaal; Sir Percy Fitzpatrick defeats Sir Richard Solomon in Pretoria (see page 428)....In the German Reichstag Count Stolberg-Wernigerode, Conservative, is elected president, defeating Dr. Spahn, of the Center, a Liberal being elected vice-president.

February 21.—The result of the Transvaal elections shows a majority for Het Volk over all the other parties; nominations to the Transvaal council are made by Lord Selborne.

February 22.—British army estimates show a saving of \$10,000,000 compared with those of last year.

February 24.—Cubans parade at Havana and present an appeal to Governor Magoon for the abrogation of the order prohibiting cock-fighting.

February 25.—In the German Reichstag the debate on the imperial estimates begins....The British Secretary of State for War outlines before the House of Commons his plan for army reorganization on the basis of a field force of 160,000 officers and men and a territorial force of 300,000.

February 26.—General Botha and Mr. E. Solomon enter a protest against the nominations to the Transvaal Council....Lord Curzon urges the Unionist party to undertake the reform of the British House of Lords.

February 27.—The British House of Commons, by a vote of 198 to 90, approves the principle of disestablishment and disendowment of the church in England and Wales.

February 28.—Dr. Claudio Williman is elected President of Uruguay, to succeed Jose Battle y Ordoñez, by the two chambers sitting in the General Assembly.

March 2.—The city of London votes municipal ownership a failure; the reformers obtain a majority in the election of the County Council.

March 3.—Canada's strict Sunday law is put in force in most of the provinces.

March 4.—The Grand Dukes of Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Mecklenburg-Strelitz announce their intentions to grant constitutions to the duchies....The resignation of Governor Swettenham, of Jamaica, is announced.

March 5.—The people of St. Petersburg make the opening of the Russian Duma the occasion of a great revolutionary demonstration.

March 8.—The Female Suffrage bill is talked to death in the British House of Commons....Radicals in the Russian Duma elect two vice-

presidents of the house over the Constitutional Democratic candidates.

March 9.—In the organization of the Russian Duma the opposition elects five secretaries.

March 13.—The Appropriation Committee of the German Reichstag approves a bill authorizing the issue of \$87,500,000 in treasury bonds.

March 15.—Socialist members of the German Reichstag make charges of interference in the elections by departments of the government.

March 16.—M. Coudev is chosen Premier of Bulgaria, to succeed the murdered M. Petkov.

March 19.—Premier Stolypin's declaration of policy, read before the Duma, contains more liberal measures of government than any heretofore proposed in Russia.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

February 19.—Honduran troops attack the Nicaraguan forces on the frontier and are defeated after an action lasting many hours.

February 20.—Owing to continued anti-Jewish disturbances in Odessa, consuls send messages to their embassies asking for protection for foreigners.

February 21.—Viscount Aoki confers with Secretary Root regarding the negotiation of a new treaty of peace between the United States and Japan.

February 22.—Honduras formally declares war on Nicaragua.... The Dutch Government officially declares its readiness to receive the delegates to The Hague Peace Conference on or about June 1.

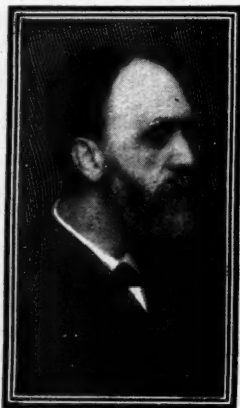
February 25.—Military guards are posted at all the foreign consulates in Odessa.... British Ambassador Bryce is received by President Roosevelt at the White House.

February 27.—The Vatican issues a statement denouncing the action of the French Government in regard to the Separation law.... Fighting between Russian troops and Chinese bandits is reported twenty miles north of Harbin; the Russian commander asks for reinforcements.

March 2.—It is announced that the Nicaraguans have captured, after sharp action, the key to the Honduran capital.

March 3.—Ambassador McCormick leaves Paris on his return to the United States.

March 8.—The Ameer of Afghanistan, after a visit of two months in India, expresses satisfaction over the international relations.



THE LATE WENDELL PHILLIPS GARRISON.
(Literary Editor of the New York Nation for 41 years.)

March 9.—It is announced in London that Great Britain and Russia have reached an agreement as to intervention in Persia in case of a crisis.

March 12.—The Belgian and Dutch commissioners, in session at Brussels, arrange the terms of an economical alliance between the two countries.

March 14.—President Roosevelt issues orders for the exclusion of Japanese laborers from the United States and the dismissal of suits against the San Francisco school board.

March 19.—Great Britain and Russia decide that no more consular guards in Persia are needed at present.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

February 19.—The Great Northern Railway Company is indicted for granting rebates to the sugar trust.

February 20.—Dr. Harry Pratt Judson is unanimously elected president of the University of Chicago by the trustees (see page 419).

February 21.—The Great Eastern Railway Company's steamer *Berlin*, from Harwich, England, to Rotterdam, is wrecked off the Hook of Holland, and 128 of her passengers and crew are lost.

February 23.—King Edward opens an exhibition of South African products in Westminster.

February 27.—E. H. Harriman completes his testimony before the Interstate Commerce Commission.

March 1.—The sale of American Sunday papers is barred in Canada.... A bill of equity

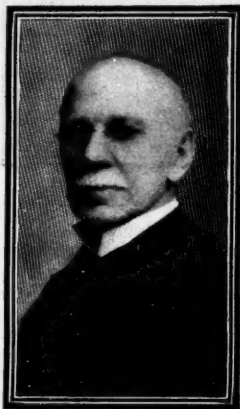
is asked at Concord, N. H., by the son, granddaughter, and nephew of Mrs. Mary Baker Gloyer Eddy for an accounting of her financial affairs.

March 3.—The Great Northern steamer *Dakota* goes ashore in the Bay of Tokio; all passengers are saved.

March 4.—Eighty-five persons are buried in a landslide covering about fifteen square miles near Segrata, Algeria.... Proclamations issued by President Roosevelt add 17,000,000 acres to the national forest reserves.

March 5.—Gen. William Booth, head of the Salvation Army, arrives in the United States from England.

March 7.—George W. Perkins returns to the New York Life Insurance Company, with interest, the \$48,500 contributed in 1904 to the Republican National Campaign Committee.



THE LATE MARSHAL H. BRIGHT.
(For 34 years editor of Christian Work.)

March 9.—As the result of a strike of electricians in Paris the companies grant the principal demands of the employees.

March 12.—Captain Vertier and about 117 men of the French battleship *Jena* at Toulon are killed in an explosion of the magazine.... Mrs. Russell Sage announces the creation of a fund of \$10,000,000, to be known as the Sage Foundation, for philanthropic work.

March 14.—Floods at Pittsburg do great damage; the high-water records of the past seventy years are broken by the Ohio River at that point.... Lord Curzon is elected chancellor of Oxford University, defeating Lord Roseberry by a vote of 1111 to 430.... Stocks on the New York Exchange go down from five to twenty points.

March 15.—The New York stock market recovers buoyancy.... Dutch forces on the island of Celebas kill 280 rebels in the attack and capture of an insurgent stronghold.

March 16.—Cambridge defeats Oxford by four and a half lengths in their annual boat race on the Thames.... The Porto Rican House of Delegates unanimously adopts a resolution asking self-government for the island.

March 17.—The White Star liner *Suevic* runs ashore on the Lizard; all the passengers are safely landed.

OBITUARY.

February 17.—Col. Henry Steel Olcott, one of the founders of the theosophical movement, 75.... Rev. Eri Baker Hulbert, dean of the University of Chicago Divinity School, 65.

February 19.—Sir William Hales Hingston, M. D., dean of the medical profession of Montreal, 78.... John Carter Brown, a prominent banker of Providence, R. I., 67.

February 20.—Prof. Henri Moissan, the eminent French chemist and Nobel Prize winner, 55.... Dr. George H. Ball, founder and president of Keuka College, N. Y., 86.

February 21.—Horatio Seymour, formerly State Engineer and Surveyor of New York, 63.... Erik G. B. Bostrom, chancellor of the University of Stockholm and one time Premier of Sweden, 65.

February 22.—Baron de Staal, formerly Ambassador from Russia to Great Britain, 85.... Bishop John Dixon, of the United Brethren Church, 87.... Ex-Congressman John T. Dunne, of New Jersey, 69.

February 23.—Archibald Clavering Gunter, novelist, playwright, and publisher, 59.... George Q. Whitney, a well-known financier of New Orleans, 50.

February 24.—Lieut.-Gov. John B. Snowball, of New Brunswick, 70.

February 25.—Archbishop Santiago de la Garza Zembro, of Linares, Mexico, 69.... Frank J. Hearne, president of the Colorado Fuel & Iron Company, 61.

February 27.—Josef Lewinsky, one of the most noted comedians of the Hofburg Theater of Vienna, 72.

February 28.—Wendell Phillips Garrison, editor of the *New York Nation* from 1865 to

1906, 67.... Major Marshal H. Bright, editor of *Christian Work*, 73.... Orson D. Munn, head of Munn & Co., publishers of the *Scientific American*, 83.... Sir Francis Plunkett, formerly of the British diplomatic service, 72.

March 1.—Lionel Decle, the French explorer, author, and journalist, 48.... Sir August Manns, a well-known musical conductor in England, 82.... Wilhelm Rapp, editor of the *Illinois Staats-Zeitung*, 80.

March 2.—Ex-Mayor William P. Malster, of Baltimore, 65.

March 3.—Dr. Oronhyatekha ("Morning Cloud"), former chief of the Mohawk Indians, 66.... Ex-Congressman William H. Snowden, of Pennsylvania, 63.... Miss Ada Lydia Howard, first president of Wellesley College, 78.

March 4.—John W. A. Scott, a landscape painter of Cambridge, Mass., 92.

March 5.—James O'Brien, a former sheriff of New York County, 70.... General Samuel E. Merwin, of New Haven, Conn., 75.

March 6.—Frank T. Campbell, many years a leader in the Republican party of Iowa, 74.... Former Chief Justice Logan E. Bleckley, of Georgia, 79.... Dr. George Bingham Fowler, editor of the *Dietetic Gazette*, 60.

March 7.—Signor Gallo, Italian Minister of Justice, 58.... Dr. Carl Heinrich von Bötticher, a well-known German statesman, 74.

March 9.—John Alexander Dowie, founder of the Christian Catholic Church in Zion, 59.... Prof. John Krom Rees, of the Columbia University Observatory, 51.... Isaac Freeman Rasin, for nearly 40 years a leader of the Democratic organization in Baltimore, 74.... Ex-United States Senator James L. Pugh, of Alabama, 87.

March 10.—Foster L. Backus, former district attorney of Brooklyn, N. Y., 58.

March 11.—Ex-Congressman Clinton Babbitt, of Wisconsin, prominent for many years in agricultural affairs, 77.... Premier M. D. Petkov, of Bulgaria.

March 12.—Jean Paul Casimir-Perier, a former President of France, 60.

March 13.—Rev. Daniel Dorchester, D.D., for many years a leading clergyman in the Methodist Episcopal Church, 80.... Fritz Scheel, conductor of the Philadelphia Orchestra, 54.

March 14.—Maurice Grau, former manager of the Metropolitan Opera House, New York, 58.... John Noble Stearns, one of the first silk manufacturers in the United States, 77.

March 15.—Edouard Toudouze, the French painter, 59.

March 16.—Dr. Albert S. Gatschet, of the Bureau of Ethnology at Washington, an authority on Indian languages and dialects, 75.

March 18.—Pierre Eugene Marcellin Berthelot, the French chemist and statesman, 80.... Brig.-Gen. John Moore, U. S. A., retired, former Surgeon-General of the army, 81.... W. J. Rhees, Keeper of Archives of the Smithsonian Institution, 77.

March 19.—Count Vladimir Nicolaievich Lamsdorff, former Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs, 62.... Thomas Bailey Aldrich, the American author, 70.

SOME CURRENT CARTOONS.



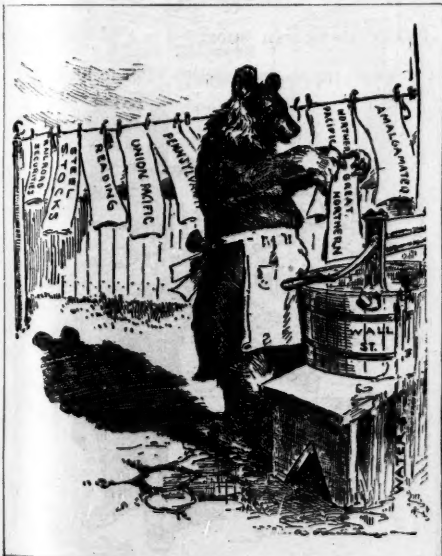
COULD IT BE HE HAS AN "AX TO GRIND" ?
The Harriman boy seems very willing to turn the grindstone for his Uncle Sam.
From the Journal (Minneapolis).



MR. HARRIMAN TELLING THE MINORITY STOCKHOLDER WHAT IS GOOD FOR HIM.
From the Ohio State Journal (Columbus).



FICKLE MARCH IN WALL STREET.
From the *Herald* (New York).



HUNG UP TO DRY AGAIN.
From the *World* (New York).



THE NEW EDUCATION.
THE CROSS (RAIL) ROADS SCHOOLMASTER TO STAR
PUPIL: "Just watch the board for a few timely
object lessons. Panics, what they are and how to
make them, is the title of my first demonstration."
From the *Press* (Philadelphia).



A POOR SCHOOL FOR RAILROAD PRESIDENTS.
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



UNCLE SAM: "What's all the fuss about?"
From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



DOES HE MEAN IT?

"We have got to come out in the open and tell the people the railroads' side of the matter."
"The only thing to do is to reach the public through the newspapers."
"I want to develop a feeling of co-operation between the people and the railroads."—From E. H. Harriman's latest interview.

From the *Evening Mail* (New York).



SUPPOSE UNCLE SAM SHOULD STICK A PIN IN THE BUBBLES?

From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



THE VERY SIMPLE MESSAGE OF THE BIG STICK. HE WHO RUNS MAY READ.

From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).



UNCLE SAM BIDS GOOD-BYE TO SENATOR SPOONER.
The whole country regrets to lose the services of one
of its ablest Senators.
From the *Evening Mail* (New York).



SECRETARY CORTELYOU AS THE DOCTOR.
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



DISCUSSION IS BETTER THAN CONCUSSION.
PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT: "Don't butt; let's talk it
over."
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



CONGRESS TRYING TO EARN ITS SALARY.
If the Sixtieth Congress keeps up the pace it will
merit the "raise" in its wages.
From the *North American* (Philadelphia).

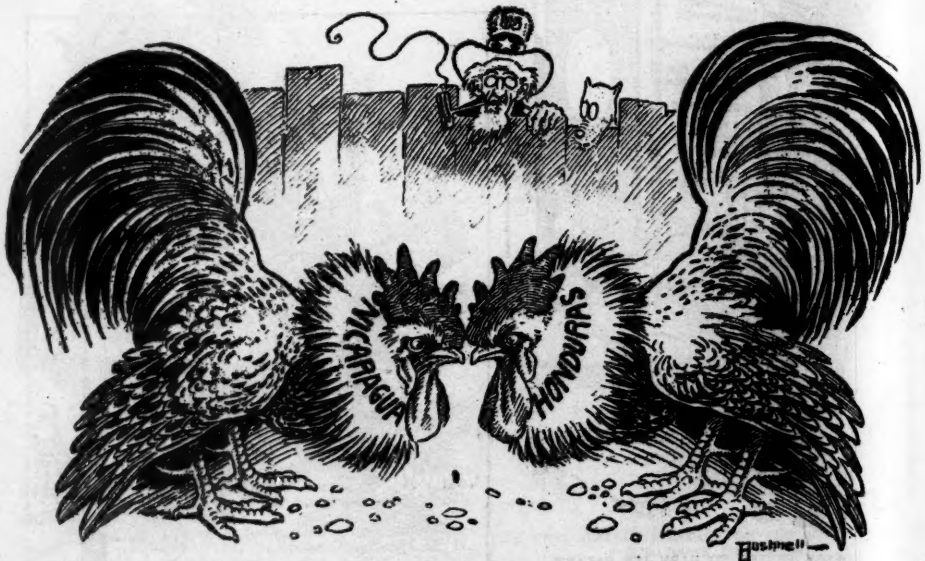


LESLIE M. SHAW'S RETIREMENT.
But Mr. Shaw is a very light sleeper.
From the *Register and Leader* (Des Moines).



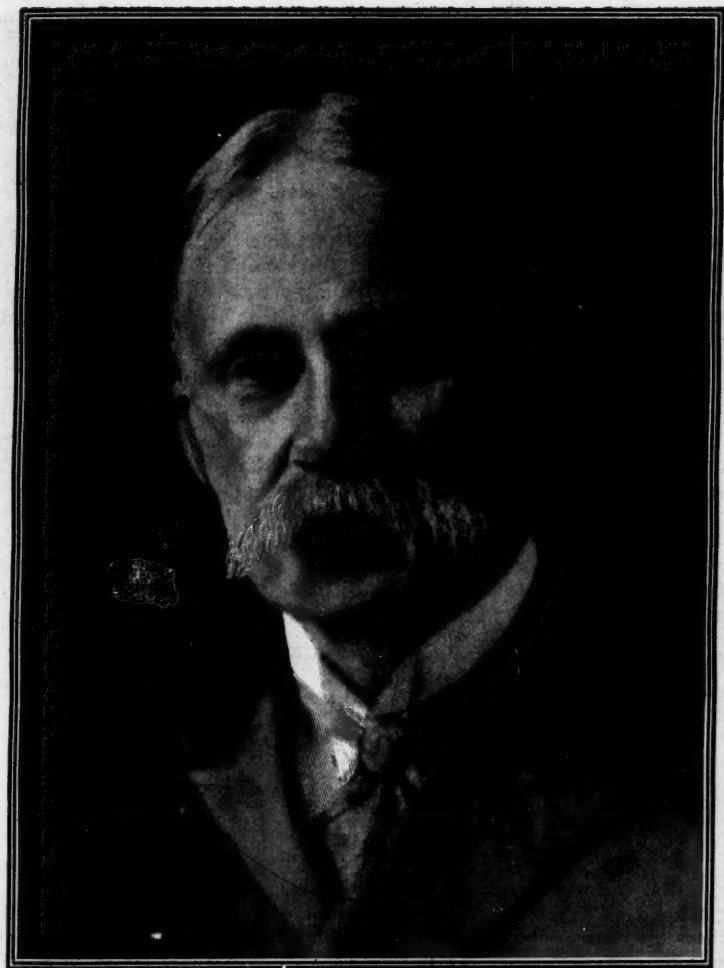
THE GOD OF WAR LAUGHS AT THE THOUGHT OF INTERNATIONAL DISARMAMENT.

From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



UNCLE SAM: "Those darned roosters are at it again."

From the *Post* (Cincinnati).



HARRY PRATT JUDSON, PRESIDENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

Dr. Judson was unanimously appointed February 20 by the trustees of the University of Chicago to succeed the late President Harper, since whose death he had been acting in the presidential capacity. Dr. Judson was born in the State of New York, is a graduate of Williams College, was a successful educator at Troy, N. Y., until 1885, and was professor of history in the University of Minnesota from that year until 1892, when he joined the original forces that have created the present University of Chicago. He had made his mark as a classical and historical scholar, with a keen grasp of questions in theoretical and practical politics, a decided literary gift, and an unusual capacity for executive work.

At Chicago he was made professor of political science and dean of the faculty of arts, literature, and science. He was also President Harper's understudy, so to speak, and his substitute in all cases of Dr. Harper's absence from Chicago. His appointment as president follows the example of Yale, Columbia, and Princeton, which, in promoting Drs. Hadley, Butler, and Wilson to the presidency, in each case selected a professor at once scholarly and practical, with a talent for public affairs. Dr. Judson has written a number of books, is an authority on military and political history, has a clear business head, and is eminently fitted to give the University of Chicago the steady, conservative régime needful after the creative and path-finding methods of the brilliant and lamented Dr. Harper.

THE NEWEST WASHINGTON DEPARTMENT.

BY AN OBSERVER AT THE CAPITAL.

THE Department of Commerce and Labor, the last of the nine great executive departments of the Government to be established, touches the every-day life of the people at many points, representing as it does the national Government's activity in those business fields which seem just now to be of even more absorbing interest than usual. It looks into our foreign and domestic trade, supervises our shipping industries, and stocks our waters with fish; it seeks means to promote the welfare of the workmen and the commercial success of their employers. The special province of the department, according to the act by which it was created, is to foster, promote, and develop the foreign and domestic commerce, the mining, manufacturing, shipping, and fishery industries, the labor interests, and the transportation facilities of the United States. In addition to these duties, and partly as a means of carrying them out, it is the principal statistical agency of the Government. Indeed, it fosters industry primarily by collecting and disseminating information; but some of its bureaus have also important administrative functions to perform, as in the control of immigration and the safeguarding of water travel.

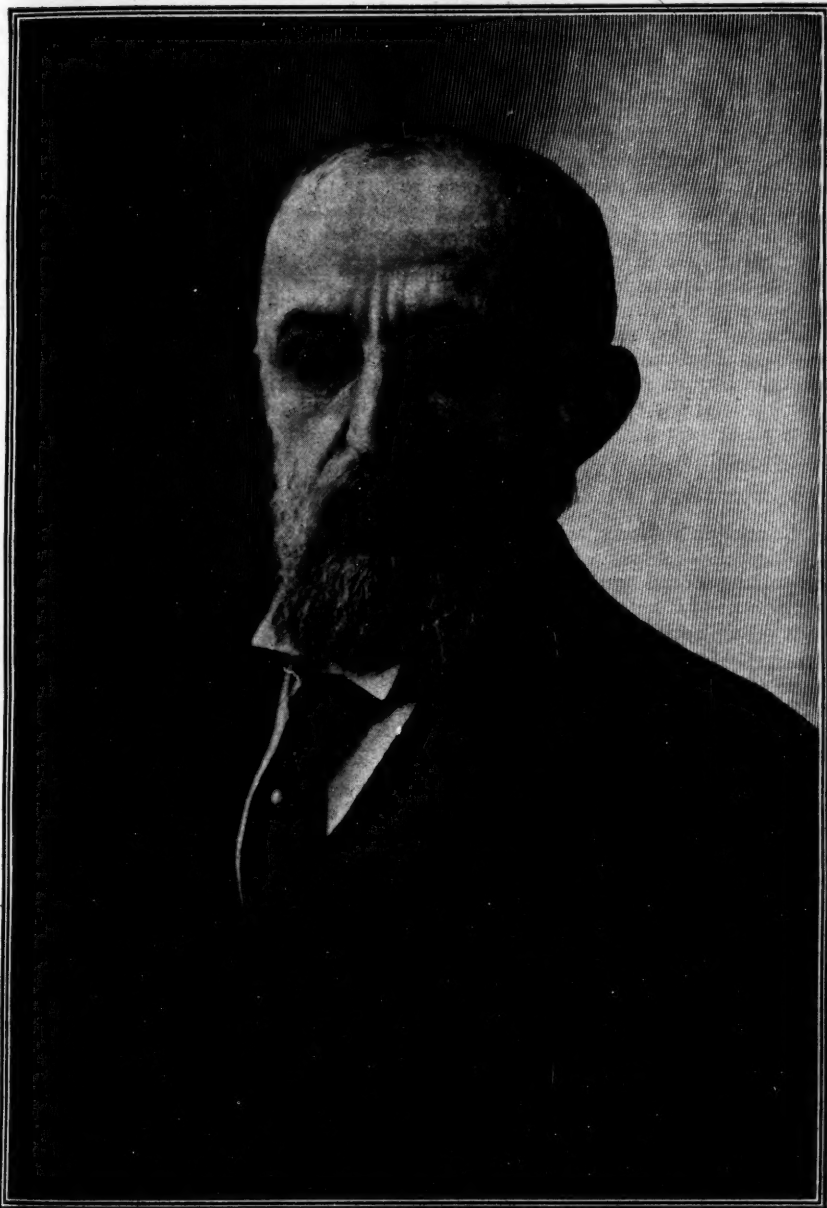
The Department of Commerce and Labor includes several bureaus formerly under the Treasury Department, which thus performed to some extent the functions of a department of commerce; but for many years commercial bodies urged the establishment of a separate department. A bill for that purpose, prepared by Senator Frye, was introduced in the Fifty-fifth Congress, and with some elaboration was reintroduced by Senator Nelson at the opening of the Fifty-seventh Congress, in December, 1901. This was the bill which, with some additions and amendments, became the act of February 14, 1903; entitled "An Act to Establish the Department of Commerce and Labor." Under it the new department was organized by the Hon. George B. Cortelyou as the first Secretary of Commerce and Labor. On his appointment as Postmaster-General he was succeeded by the Hon. Victor H. Metcalf, of California, who has now been succeeded by

the Hon. Oscar S. Straus, of New York.

The Bureau of Corporations was created at the same time as the department of which it forms a part, for the purpose of investigating the organization and conduct of corporations and corporate combinations engaged in interstate commerce, other than railroads, and to compile and publish useful information concerning such corporations. The head of the bureau has power to compel the attendance and testimony of witnesses and the production of documentary evidence. In a sense, the Bureau of Corporations is successor to the temporary Industrial Commission, which went out of existence in 1902, but its organization is very different and its methods of investigation are more thorough than was possible with a temporary board.

PUBLICITY REGARDING CORPORATIONS.

Under the administration of the Hon. James R. Garfield as Commissioner of Corporations reports specially ordered by Congressional resolutions were made on two industries; a partial report on the beef industry, in March, 1905, and the report on the transportation of petroleum, showing the existence of a great variety of ingenious railway discriminations in favor of the Standard Oil Company, in May, 1906. The beef report presented only part of the information which had been collected, because the Department of Justice took up the case against the packing-house companies before the report was finished. The report on the transportation of petroleum was likewise a partial report on what appeared to be the most important aspect of the oil situation. It was presented while the Railroad-Rate bill was under consideration, and the discriminations disclosed may have had some influence in deciding Congress to enlarge the powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission. The Bureau of Corporations has in preparation reports on other phases of the oil industry and on the tobacco, steel, sugar, and coal industries, and water transportation. Investigations of the lumber industry, of the "Harvester Trust," and of the cotton exchanges were also called for at the recent session of Congress. These investigations will be con-



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HON. OSCAR S. STRAUS, SECRETARY OF COMMERCE AND LABOR.

ducted under the direction of the Hon. Herbert Knox Smith as Commissioner of Corporations, and Dr. Edward Dana Durand as Deputy Commissioner, both of whom have been connected with the bureau almost from its establishment, as the principal lieutenants of Mr. Garfield, and upon his transfer to the Interior Department were logically in line for promotion.

The Bureau of Corporations, with the evidence it has collected, has assisted the Department of Justice in preparing its cases

against the packing-house companies and against the Standard Oil Company. Its inquiries, however, are not directed primarily to violations of law, but more especially to questionable practices which are not illegal, but may require legislation to control them. The bureau was established primarily to insure publicity regarding industrial combinations, and its work has given striking evidence of the effectiveness of publicity alone in correcting abuses. In the case of railway discriminations in oil rates, for example, as soon as the officers of a railroad learned that an agent of the bureau had discovered a discrimination it was usually abandoned.

The desirability of requiring a federal license for corporations engaged in interstate commerce was repeatedly urged by Commissioner Garfield in his annual reports.

STATISTICAL BUREAUS.

The Bureau of Statistics, which was formerly under the Treasury Department, is now one of the several statistical bureaus in the Department of Commerce and Labor. It publishes voluminous monthly and annual reports on the external and internal commerce of the country, including valuable monographs on special topics. It issues also an annual Statistical Abstract of the United States, summarizing the available statistics on a variety of subjects, and has begun the publication of a Statistical Abstract of the World.

The permanent Census Office, established in 1902 and attached to the Department of Commerce and Labor a year later, has no difficulty in keeping busy during the interval between the decennial counts of population. The results of the manufacturing census of 1905, the first of the new quinquennial series, have been published in the form of bulletins devoted to the separate States, and in part also in bulletins or monographs describing specific industries throughout the country. Exhaustive reports have lately been published on telephones and telegraphs, mortality, benevolent institutions, the blind and the deaf, paupers in almshouses, and the insane and feeble-minded, and a volume on wealth, debt, and taxation is now in press. The Bureau of the Census publishes annual statistics of cities of thirty thousand population and over, which constitute a valuable source of information on municipal administration and finance. It also publishes annual statistics of births and deaths in the areas in which registration is provided for by State

and city governments, and is using its best endeavors toward enlarging the registration areas by urging the necessary legislation and more careful registration where existing laws have not been well enforced. The bureau is now engaged upon a report on marriage and divorce, based upon the divorce records of the courts. A census of religious bodies is being taken by mail. A decennial census of the express business is to be taken in co-operation with the Interstate Commerce Commission, and a census of fisheries in co-operation with the Bureau of Fisheries, thus avoiding duplication of statistical work in these directions. At the suggestion of the Forestry Service, the Bureau of the Census will hereafter compile the annual statistics of the cut of lumber. Arrangements have been made with the statistical bureau of the Department of Agriculture by which reports of the two bureaus on cotton production are brought into harmony with each other, and made public so far as possible on the same dates and in such a manner as to reduce to a minimum any disturbing effect upon the markets. The Census Bureau issues cotton-ginning reports semi-monthly. Provision has been made for publishing the names of heads of families returned at the First Census, in 1790, as urged by genealogical and patriotic societies.

MARKETS FOR OUR MANUFACTURES.

The use of labor-saving devices is carried so far in census work that not only are adding, multiplying, and dividing done on calculating machines, but electrical tabulating machines are used to sort and total facts represented by holes punched in millions of cards—at the decennial census, one for each person in the United States. Census Bureau experts have recently invented a new type of tabulating machine which, it is estimated, will reduce the expense of the next count of population by \$750,000; and they are at work on other mechanical devices which they expect to revolutionize census methods.

It is the province of the Bureau of Manufactures to foster the manufacturing industries of the United States, and markets for the same at home and abroad, mainly by gathering and publishing information concerning such industries and markets. Consular reports of commercial interest are transmitted from the State Department to the Department of Commerce and Labor and issued by the Bureau of Manufactures in its *Daily Consular and Trade Reports*, to:

gether with occasional reports from the four special agents of the department who are wholly engaged in collecting information abroad for the benefit of American manufacturers. In addition to their current reports, these special agents prepare final reports on the various countries to which they are sent, and these final reports are transmitted to Congress and published in pamphlet form. When information is received which is believed to be of special importance to particular industries, as, for example, by pointing out particular ports for the sale of their products, it is sent directly to those concerned, instead of being published for general distribution both at home and abroad. This plan is much appreciated by the manufacturers. Samples of all kinds of cotton goods sold in China have been obtained and distributed to commercial bodies and textile schools, and similar samples are being collected in other countries.

The work of collating and arranging the tariffs of foreign countries for the information of exporters was transferred last year from the Bureau of Statistics to the Bureau of Manufactures, which also publishes the annual volume entitled "Commercial Relations of the United States," formerly issued by the State Department. The Bureau of Manufactures was organized only about two years ago, and its clerical force is not yet adequate for the amount of work it has to do.

THE BUREAU OF LABOR.

The Bureau of Labor was originally organized at the beginning of 1885, under the Department of the Interior. In 1888 it was made an independent department (though under a commissioner and not a secretary), but on the establishment of the Department of Commerce and Labor it naturally became a bureau in the new department. Its inclusion in this department was strongly opposed by some of the labor interests, which were ambitious to have a Secretary of Labor with a seat in the President's cabinet, but other labor organizations expressed themselves as satisfied with immediate representation in the cabinet through the Secretary of Commerce and Labor. The Hon. Carroll D. Wright was Commissioner of Labor from the first organization of the bureau until two years ago, when he was succeeded by Prof. Charles P. Neill.

The purpose of the Bureau of Labor is "to acquire and diffuse among the people of

the United States useful information on subjects connected with labor, in the most general and comprehensive sense of that word, and especially upon its relation to capital, the hours of labor, the earnings of laboring men and women, and the means of promoting their material, social, intellectual, and moral prosperity." An important part of its work is to investigate the causes and outcome of controversies between employers and employees. Whenever a serious controversy arises between a railroad and its employees the chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission and the Commissioner of Labor, at the request of either party to the controversy, are required by law to use their best efforts to settle the difficulty by mediation and conciliation, or if such efforts are unsuccessful, by arbitration. Action has been taken under this provision three times during the past few months.

Secretary Straus is one of the trustees of the fund established by President Roosevelt with the Nobel prize for furthering industrial peace.

The publications of the Bureau of Labor consist of annual statistical reports on various subjects within the scope of its powers of investigation, a series of additional special reports, including reports on the condition of labor in Hawaii, and a bi-monthly bulletin containing articles sometimes of a descriptive rather than strictly statistical character, digests of State labor reports and of foreign labor and statistical documents, current labor legislation, and court decisions on labor.

The most important piece of work to be undertaken by the Bureau of Labor in the immediate future is an investigation of the conditions surrounding women and children in industry, provided for by Congress at the recent session, and intended to show what protective legislation is needed. This will be more than a statistical inquiry, for it is to include the social, moral, educational, and physical condition of woman and child workers.

IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION.

The establishment last year of a Division of Naturalization in the bureau charged with the enforcement of the immigration and Chinese-exclusion laws was deemed an event of sufficient importance to enlarge the name of the bureau. The creation of the new division was recommended by a special commission on naturalization, and much is hoped from it in the way of greater care in

admitting foreigners to citizenship. The complete descriptive records kept of all immigrants admitted will make it difficult to obtain or use certificates of naturalization fraudulently.

The number of immigrants arriving at ports of the United States now exceeds a million a year. This influx of foreigners makes plenty of work for the immigration officers. Intending immigrants who fail to pass the inspectors are taken before a board of special inquiry. If this board decides to exclude the applicant, he has the right of appeal to the Secretary of Commerce and Labor, unless he is excluded by reason of a contagious or loathsome disease, in which case the board's decision is final. When an appeal is taken the local Commissioner of Immigration, after looking the applicant over and talking with him, sends the case to Washington with his recommendations; the Commissioner-General then prepares his opinion for the approval of the Secretary. These appeals to the Secretary often number thirty or thirty-five a day. Secretary Straus says they provide him with good evening reading.

Some 12,000 intending immigrants are excluded yearly, the principal grounds of exclusion being pauperism, disease, and violation of the contract-labor laws. Notwithstanding the vigilance of the inspectors, it is often found that aliens have gained admission to the country unlawfully, and the year's work of the bureau includes the apprehension and expulsion of several hundred of these. For better preventing violations of law, Commissioner-General Sargent has recommended either that more severe penalties should be imposed upon offending steamship companies or that provision should be made for the inspection of immigrants by medical officers at the foreign ports of embarkation; and the new immigration law of 1907 provides that immigration officers and surgeons may be detailed for service in foreign countries.

Much discussion in the labor press and elsewhere has followed a recent decision of the department concerning the importation of foreign laborers by the State of South Carolina. This decision has been referred to as if it modified the contract labor laws, but in reality it was an opinion of the solicitor of the department to the effect that those laws did not apply to the case in question. The State of South Carolina, which has been suffering for some years from an insufficiency

of labor, created a State Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Immigration, similar to the corresponding departments in other Southern States, and, with the aid of a fund contributed by manufacturers, sent the commissioner of the department abroad to start a current of migration to South Carolina, if possible in ships sailing directly to Charleston. The commissioner advanced the passage money and agreed to find employment for the immigrants, but the latter were under no obligation to work for any particular employer. The Attorney-General has sustained the solicitor's opinion that there was no illegal contract involved, but he adds that under the more comprehensive terms of the immigration act of 1907 a repetition of the proceeding would be illegal. Fortunately, however, the new act renders such State action less necessary than before, by establishing within the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization a Division of Information to promote a beneficial distribution of immigrants by making known the advantages of different sections of the country. Notwithstanding the pressing need for labor in the South, more than seven-tenths of the immigrants admitted to the country now announce their intention of settling in thickly populated Northern States, and a distressingly large proportion of them stay in the cities where they are least needed. It is to remedy this anomalous condition that immigration officers have repeatedly asked for authority to present, at Ellis Island, for example, the attractions of distant sections and the demand for labor where it exceeds the supply.

The annual reports of the Commissioner-General are mines of useful information regarding the nationalities, occupations, etc., of the immigrants admitted each year.

NAVIGATION AND SHIPPING.

The Commissioner of Navigation has general jurisdiction over the commercial marine and the merchant seamen of the United States. He has charge of the registration of vessels, and prepares an annual list of American merchant vessels showing the tonnage of each. His reports contain quantities of interesting statistical information relating to the shipping industries. He also supervises the collection of the tonnage tax. He has power to change the names of vessels when necessary. He inquires into the operation of the laws relative to navigation, and suggests desirable amendments.

Under the Bureau of Navigation are ship-

ping commissioners at all the principal ports, who superintend the engagement and discharge of seamen and apprentices to the sea service, scrutinizing the terms of their contracts and seeing that the men and boys engaged through them actually go on board at the time required. They keep registers of the names and characters of seamen, and thus act as employment agencies for the merchant marine, with power to control the conditions of service in the interests of the seamen. Secretary Straus has ordered a general inspection of the shipping commissioners' offices along the Atlantic Coast; and the co-operation of foreign consuls at American ports will be sought in stamping out "shanghaiing" and the "crimping" of seamen by boarding-house keepers and others. As these offenses are committed chiefly in shipping seamen on foreign tramp vessels, the shipping commissioners alone can do little to prevent them.

STEAMBOAT INSPECTION.

The Steamboat-Inspection Service, established for the security of life on board passenger vessels and now responsible for the safety of freighters also, is under the direction of a Supervising Inspector-General and ten supervising inspectors, who meet as a board at Washington once a year for consultation and the making of necessary regulations. Under each supervising inspector are local inspectors who examine the hulls, boilers, and equipment of all steamboats and all considerable sailing vessels, including foreign ships not sufficiently inspected at home, and issue certificates of approval. Generally speaking, the certificate states the number of passengers the vessel has accommodations for and can carry with safety, and this number must not be exceeded; but this provision of the law, unfortunately, does not apply to ferry-boats, so that the inspectors are powerless to prevent overcrowding where it is most common. Besides inspecting the vessels themselves, the inspectors examine all new life-preservers. Of those submitted for inspection and test last year, less than 1 per cent. were rejected, showing that manufacturers are now, as a rule, complying with the requirements of law. Boiler plates for marine boilers are also tested at the mills by assistant inspectors of the Steamboat Inspection Service; thus explosions are guarded against. The boards of local inspectors license and classify the officers, engineers, and pilots of the vessels subject to inspection, in-

vestigate the causes of accidents, and often revoke or suspend the licenses of careless officers.

Supervising Inspector-General Uhler has expressed the opinion that the annual inspection required by law is not a sufficient guaranty that the equipment of a vessel is maintained in proper condition throughout the year, and has urged the necessity of intermediate inspections. Hereafter it is hoped to inspect each vessel about three times a year; indeed, Secretary Straus has ordered that this be done at least in the case of excursion and ferry-boats.

THE LIGHTHOUSE ESTABLISHMENT.

The lighthouses, light-vessels, beacons, buoys, fog signals, and similar aids to navigation along the coasts of the United States and its principal rivers are under the supervision of a Lighthouse Board consisting of two officers of the corps of engineers of the army, two officers of the navy of high rank, and two civilians of high scientific attainments, together with an officer of the navy and an engineer officer of the army as secretaries. The Secretary of Commerce and Labor is *ex-officio* president of the Lighthouse Board, but the board elects one of its own number as chairman to preside at its quarterly and special meetings in the absence of the president.

The coasts and rivers under the charge of the Lighthouse Board are divided into sixteen districts, and an officer of the army or navy is assigned to each district as lighthouse inspector. The construction of lighthouses is superintended by officers of the engineer corps of the army detailed for that purpose from time to time. All the officers assigned to the Lighthouse Establishment serve without additional salary.

Some idea of the magnitude of the Lighthouse Service may be formed from the fact that the light-keepers and the officers and crews of light-vessels and tenders number about 3000 persons, and the laborers in the service over 3000 more. The coast line of the United States and its insular possessions under the control of the Lighthouse Board measures 17,540 nautical miles.

An act passed last year requires any private agency erecting lights or other aids to navigation in the navigable waters of the United States to obtain permission from the Lighthouse Board; and the board has also issued regulations for the lighting of bridges across navigable rivers.

THE COAST AND GEODETIC SURVEY.

A survey of the coast of the United States was authorized by Congress just 100 years ago, in an act establishing the first scientific bureau of the Government. The organization of the Survey was delayed, however, by the necessity of obtaining instruments from abroad and by the War of 1812, until after the conclusion of that war; and for many years the Coast Survey was treated as a shuttle-cock and transferred back and forth between the Treasury, War, and Navy departments, but it found a resting-place under the Treasury Department from 1836 until the organization of the Department of Commerce and Labor, in 1903.

The work of the Coast and Geodetic Survey is of much practical value to navigation, for it includes the charting of the coasts of the United States and its possessions, including rivers to the head of ship navigation, and deep-sea soundings, tidal and astronomical observations, and the preparation of magnetic tables and tide tables. It includes also a great deal of work chiefly of scientific interest, such as trigonometric surveys by the method of triangulation, computations for determining the figure of the earth, the establishment of standard levels, etc. The Survey co-operates to a considerable extent with foreign governments. Special magnetic observations have been made in connection with the German Antarctic expedition, and copies of the magnetograms for certain days have been forwarded to Norway for use in the study of the relation of magnetism to the northern lights. Tide tables have also been furnished to foreign governments as distant as New Zealand. The surveying of international boundary lines is another part of the work of this bureau. In re-marking the boundary between the United States and Canada west of the Rocky Mountains the Superintendent of the Coast and Geodetic Survey and the Director of the Geological Survey are the commissioners on the part of the United States; in the demarcation of the Alaska boundary the former officer acts alone for the United States, under the direction of the Secretary of State.

THE BUREAU OF STANDARDS.

The Bureau of Standards is, in a sense, an off-shoot of the Coast and Geodetic Survey. The custody of the standards furnished by the International Bureau of Weights and Measures and the execution of the laws made

by Congress under its constitutional power to fix the standard of weights and measures was for many years assigned to the Superintendent of that Survey, but in 1901 an independent Bureau of Standards was created. Two substantial laboratory buildings have been erected on a beautiful site overlooking Washington, in a locality free from mechanical and electrical disturbances. The buildings and their surroundings suggest a university rather than a Government bureau, and indeed the Bureau of Standards is an important part of our national university, which is not quite such an institution as Washington planned, but is made up of the scientific bureaus of the Government. The use of the facilities of the Bureau of Standards and other scientific bureaus for research and study is granted by law to scientific investigators and to students of institutions of learning.

The Bureau of Standards has been organized by Prof. S. W. Stratton, who was called to the post of director from a professorship in the University of Chicago. His staff comprises physicists, chemists, laboratory assistants, computers, aids, laboratory apprentices, etc. The results of the purely scientific work of the bureau are published in bulletins and circulars. Annual conferences on the weights and measures of the United States are held under the auspices of the bureau. The most direct connection between the Bureau of Standards and the business world lies in the tests of instruments and materials made for manufacturers, who are thus enabled to offer for sale clinical thermometers, for example, officially guaranteed to be accurate within a very slight margin of error.

THE BUREAU OF FISHERIES.

The formerly independent Fish Commission was transformed into a bureau of the Department of Commerce and Labor on its organization. This bureau studies the waters of the United States and the biological and physical problems they present, including the life history of fishes of economic value and of the animals and plants upon which they feed; it propagates useful food fishes and shellfish and distributes them to various parts of the country, and it investigates the methods and apparatus in use by fishermen. The Bureau of Fisheries is a peculiarly American institution, which has achieved a worldwide reputation for its originality and enterprise. It furnishes many millions of fish eggs and young fish to State fish commissions every year, and also exchanges eggs

with foreign countries. It rescues fishes from lands temporarily overflowed, conducts experimental sponge farms in which sponges of special shapes are grown to meet the demands of the market, and experiments with the fattening of oysters much as the agricultural experiment stations do with the fattening of cattle. It also investigates the effects upon fishes of river pollution, especially by industrial wastes. Wastes from gas-works have been found to be especially fatal to fishes.

The aquarium of the Bureau of Fisheries is one of the interesting sights of Washington, although in its present building it cannot be developed so as to represent adequately the work of the bureau. The establishment of a national aquarium on a scale commensurate with the importance of the work done is a cherished ambition of the officers of the bureau.

The Bureau of Fisheries conducts investigations regarding the fur-seal herds of the Pribilof Islands and the Bering Sea, and has established a salmon hatchery on the coast of Alaska; but the administrative work in connection with both the fur-seal fisheries and the salmon fisheries of Alaska is under the direct supervision of the Secretary of Commerce and Labor, who, in his efforts to check the indiscriminate slaughter of seals by foreign sealers, last year sent the solicitor of the department to Alaska to make a special investigation. The fur-seal herd has been greatly reduced in numbers, and it appears that the present laws for the protection of the seals are inadequate. The exclusive franchise of the North American Commercial Company for taking fur seals on the Pribilof Islands will expire three years hence. The salmon fisheries are so well under control that illegal fishing has become quite exceptional.

A SCATTERED DEPARTMENT.

The Bureau of Standards and the Bureau of Fisheries are the only portions of the Department of Commerce and Labor which occupy Government buildings at Washington; the other bureaus are scattered about in rented quarters all the way from Capitol Hill to the Treasury. Including stables and storage rooms, no less than ten buildings and

parts of buildings are rented for the use of the department, at a cost of about \$60,000 a year. In the endeavor to crowd the growing bureaus into their present quarters the department library has been abolished, and hallways are utilized for file cases and even for desks. Secretary Metcalf estimated that the scattered condition of the department cost more in messenger service and other wasted effort than the amount paid for rent. It is very evident that the department needs a permanent home in which all the bureaus now occupying rented quarters can be brought under one roof.

This last addition to the Government ministries has made the most of its advantage as a new department in the selection of employees. Appointments have been made solely for fitness, political considerations being so far ignored that no one can tell whether Republicans or Democrats are in the majority. It is noticeably a department of young, energetic, and efficient men, with a large proportion of college, law-school, and university graduates, but also with as many as possible of the right kind of men drawn from the practical business world.

The appointment of the Hon. Oscar S. Straus as Secretary of Commerce and Labor has been universally commended as a most appropriate selection. Himself a merchant, a lawyer, and a scholar, twice Minister to Turkey, a member of the Court of Arbitration at the Hague, and president of the New York Board of Trade and Transportation, he combines in a marked degree the experience, ability, and wide sympathies needed in his difficult office. His aim is to conduct the department for the best interests of the industrial classes, employers and employees alike, doing for labor everything that the law permits and giving to manufacturers all the knowledge the department can secure, but without doing any of the business which individuals should transact for themselves. He has definite ideas about the proper limits of governmental activity, and will not allow the foreign agents of the department to be used as drummers by particular firms; American manufacturers must send their own representatives abroad if they would compete successfully with Europe.

THE RESTORATION OF THE TRANSVAAL TO THE BOERS.

BY W. T. STEAD.

WHEN I was in Johannesburg three years ago I told the Boers that I would return in five years to find them "the most prosperous, the most contented, and the most loyal of all the subjects of King Edward." It seemed a bold prophecy at the time, but I knew my countrymen, and I knew my Boers. To-day no one doubts that I was right. The advent of General Botha's ministry is a notification to all the world that the Transvaal has been given back to the Boers; that, so far as is possible, the criminal work of the war has been undone, and Milnerism expelled root and branch from South Africa.

The British flag, it is true, waves over the Transvaal. The Boers are subjects of the British King, but to be a subject of a British King is no strain upon any one's loyalty. For the loyalty of British subjects is only claimed by an ideal sovereign who can do no wrong. If any of those who wield his authority and act in his name do anything that is wrong or unjust, then the first duty which a loyal subject owes to his ideal sovereign is energetically to rid his actual monarch of these evil advisers. All or nearly all the trouble in South Africa arose from ignoring the difference between loyalty to the King and obedience to his satraps. The satrap always tries to make out that loyalty to the sov-

ereign entails obedience to his ministers. Hence the Boers were taught that loyalty to the Queen involved submission to Lord Milner, to Mr. Chamberlain, and to Dr. Jameson. As a matter of fact, the more loyal a British subject is to his sovereign the more

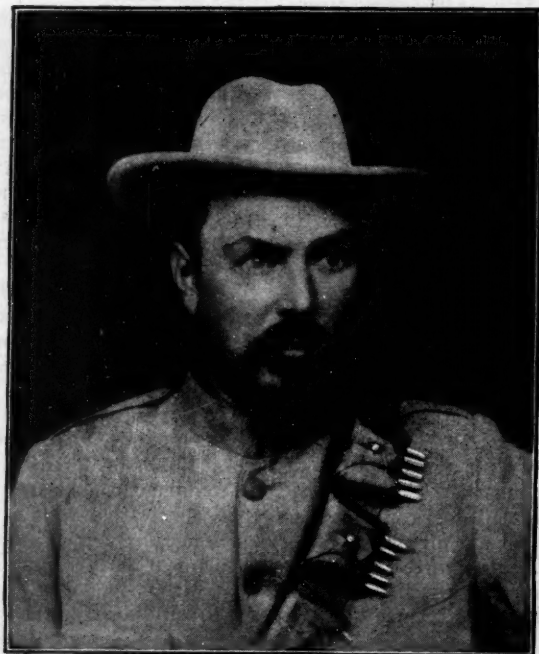
violently must he revolt against the evil advisers of that sovereign who are doing wickedness in his name. In fact, disloyalty to an unjust or oppressive high commissioner or colonial secretary is the necessary corollary of true loyalty to the ideal monarch, who by the law and the constitution is incapable of doing wrong.

WHY THE BOERS ARE LOYAL.

It may be objected that the sacred right of insurrection may shelter itself under the guise of loyalty. The ob-

jection is sound. The fact is true. Loyalty lingers in Great Britain as a useful political force because the Puritans discovered the secret of making war on the King in the name of the King. When once the Boers realized that fundamental truth in modern politics they had no longer any objection to profess loyalty to the King in the abstract, knowing that they thereby acquired a chartered right to oppose to the uttermost everything done in his name of which they disapproved.

Neither do they object to the British flag. That they love it no one pretends. For



GENERAL BOTHA: NEW PREMIER OF THE TRANSVAAL.

years it was the symbol of the most barbarous acts of devastation and the most ruthless policy of denudation that have disgraced the annals of modern war. It was under the shadow of that flag that 20,000 children and 5000 women whose homes had been given to the flames were done to death in the concentration camps. For three long years that flag meant arson, burglary, highway robbery, and murder. No wonder they hated it, that Boer women would avoid the sight of it as a pestilence, and that many Boers refused to enter a building over which it was flying. But although it will be years before they forget the odious associations of the flag of the invaders, the Boers are far too shrewd and practical politicians to allow their sentimental preference for their old *Vierkleur* to stand in the way of the restoration of their right to govern the country which they reclaimed from the wilderness. They accept the flag as the outward and visible sign of their readiness to form one of the congeries of independent republics which make up the British colonial empire. It does them no harm. In their internal politics there will be, as Sir Richard Solomon declared, "no flag-wagging," but neither will there be any attempt to pull down the flag.

PRO-BOERS AT THE FRONT IN ENGLISH POLITICS.

When we ask how comes it that the Boers who but four years ago were fighting against the British Government are now accepting office as the King's ministers in the Transvaal colony, the answer is that this blessed transformation has been brought about by the political revolution which took place in Great Britain at the beginning of last year. General Botha, the Boer commander-in-chief, is now Prime Minister of the King in Pretoria, because Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman, the pro-Boer who denounced British "methods of barbarism," is Prime Minister of the King in Downing Street.

It is somewhat difficult for Americans to understand the extraordinary completeness and suddenness of the change in the position of British political parties that took place at the last general election. Never before has any political party which exposed itself to the charge of treasonous sympathy with the enemy been placed in office at the very first opportunity, in order to make amends to that enemy. The pro-Boers were denounced as false to their country, as traitors to their sovereign, as the friends and allies of the men

whom the King's soldiers were fighting in the field. They were mobbed, their meetings were broken up, and but for police protection it would have fared ill with their lives. But the moment Parliament was dissolved these much-despised, much-abused pro-Boers were installed in office at the head of the largest majority returned for seventy years. The men who made the war were swept from the field, and the men who hated it, who had denounced it and opposed it from the first, took their places. Hence it was that as pro-Boers were supreme at Westminster, the Boers have taken office as King's ministers at Pretoria.

THE BOERS' SUSPICIONS ALLAYED.

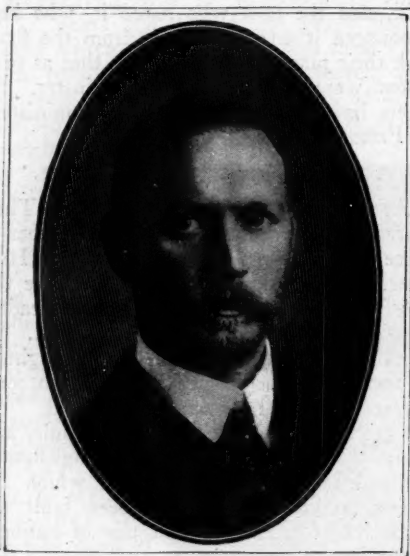
At first the Boers were suspicious. They feared that the influence of Lord Rosebery's three vice-presidents, Sir E. Grey, Mr. Halldane, and Mr. Asquith, might paralyze the pro-Boer sympathies of the Liberal leader. President Steyn was frankly distrustful. "I don't see any signs," he said, to my daughter, in 1904, "of your father's Englishmen coming into power." "Wait," I replied, "till we get the chance." The chance came, and "my Englishmen," Liberal Englishmen, faithful to the principles upon which the British colonial empire has been built up, came into office on a great tide of national enthusiasm.

Mr. J. G. Smuts, a young and determined republican, who was state-attorney of the South-African Republic and assistant commandant-general during the war, came to England, twelve months ago, to take soundings. He saw most of the new ministers, and met many members of the new majority. He was more than satisfied. He was amazed and delighted. He told me just before he started for South Africa that he had never expected to return with a heart so full of confidence. "Some of your ministers," he added, "are more pro-Boer than I am myself." Certainly the hatred and loathing with which the majority of English Liberals, in and out of office, regard the South-African War is quite as intense as anything I have ever heard expressed by the South-African Boers. After Mr. Smuts came Dr. Engelburg, editor of the *Volkstem*, formerly President Kruger's organ. He also went home delighted. "I never dreamed," he said, "that so soon after a long war a British Government could be so sympathetic with the men they had been fighting. You have only to stick to your present lines and you

will have no trouble from the Boers." "Indeed," he added, "if you should have trouble from the other fellows you may confidently appeal to us for help in case of need."

A CONSTITUTION FOR THE TRANSVAAL.

When these emissaries returned to South Africa the Milnerites were furious. The British Government dispatched a small com-



GENERAL SMUTS, COLONIAL SECRETARY.
(Botha's right-hand man in the new government.)

mission of four to South Africa to examine and report as to the best way in which the republics could be restored to the Boers. That was not the precise terms of their instructions,—they had "to prepare a scheme of responsible self-government for the new colony." This they did. Their scheme was submitted to the cabinet. After a good deal of discussion the Lord Chancellor, Lord Loreburn, one who was and is the bitterest enemy of Milnerism in the government, drafted a new constitution for the Transvaal.

While they were framing it the Milnerites dispatched two of their number, Sir Percy Fitzpatrick and Mr. Abe Bailey, to England to set forth how serious would be the consequences of giving responsible government to the colony. They did their best to make the British jingoes' flesh creep. But it was all in vain. The ministry proclaimed the new constitution, which gave the government of the country back to its inhabitants. They refused female suffrage, for which the Boers had asked, for it was felt that if the

women had votes the celibate miners of the Rand would not even have a sporting chance of success. But adult white male suffrage was established. A representative house of sixty-nine members was to be elected for five years, and, as a balance weight, there was added an upper house of fifteen members nominated by the crown. This arrangement was tentative. At the end of four years the constitution can be revised in the light of experience in accordance with the wishes of the representatives of the people. If at any time differences of opinion should arise between the two houses they were to sit together and the vote of the majority was to prevail.

With three important exceptions, the constitution gave the Boers all the rights and privileges of an independent republic. These three reserved points related (1) to the natives, (2) to the Chinese, and (3) to the British who had settled in the colony after the war. The last is of no importance, the British settler on the land being usually more of a Boer than his neighbor. The native question is not immediately urgent. The restriction placed upon the introduction of further supplies of Chinese labor was inevitable in view of the pledges of the home government to the British electorate.

THE ALIGNMENT OF PARTIES.

When the electoral battle began it was not anticipated that the Boers would carry all before them. They did not expect it themselves. All that they hoped for was that they would be able, together with the Nationalists, to form a majority over the Progressives. A word here may not be out of place as to the political nomenclature of the parties in the Transvaal: The Boers form a solid homogeneous party known as Het Volk, "the People." Opposed to them are the Progressives, so-called. They are the men whose political ideal is the ascendancy of the Johannesburg Chamber of Mines. They are Milnerites, jingoes, advocates of the racial ascendancy of the British over the Dutch. Their leader is Sir Percy Fitzpatrick, who played a most mischievous part in 1899 in precipitating the war, and with them are nearly all the great capitalists of the Rand, with the exception of J. B. Robinson. Between these two chief opposing forces come the Nationalists, the next largest group. The Nationalists are chiefly British electors who resent the domination of the Chamber of Mines, and who are willing to co-operate with the Boers. Their chief, who at one time was regarded as the certain first

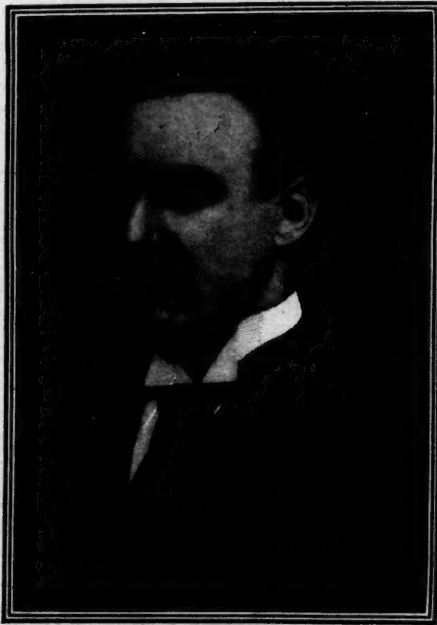
Premier of the colony, is Sir Richard Solomon, formerly chief legal adviser of Lord Milner. When Lord Milner fell Sir Richard Solomon lost no time in worshipping the rising sun. In his election address he declared "his policy was based on trusting the Dutch, reconciliation, co-operation, true imperialism, no flag-wagging, and no placing of political power in the hands of the financial houses." In addition to the Nationalists there were a certain number of Independents and Labor candidates.

THE ELECTION AND ITS RESULTS.

The electoral battle was waged with much spirit. The Milnerites appealed almost entirely to the mining community, although, taking advantage of a split in the ranks of the Boers and Nationalists, the Progressive leader captured the seat for South Central Pretoria. They predicted the certain ruin of the mining industry if the Boers were returned to power. They declared it was their mission to defend the policy of Lord Milner. On the other hand, the Boers proclaimed with thoroughgoing emphasis their desire for co-operation with the British. "At Ver-eeniging," said General Botha in a message to the British at home, "I signed the treaty of peace; I then solemnly accepted what is so dear to you, your King and your flag. They now are our King and our flag." Mr. Smuts declared that "they had had enough of 'ructions'; he was on the side of the imperial government," as against Sir Percy Fitzpatrick, who was talking of eliminating Downing Street from South Africa. Dr. Krause, who had spent a long time in English prisons on a political charge, declared that "the British lion's paws were strong enough to crush anything that was going to oppose it, but if their assistance was wanted it would willingly be given." As to the alleged danger to the mines, General Botha was no less emphatic. He said:

We simply object to the men who run the mines also running the country. As I protected the mines during the war, so I shall see that they are not injured now. The talk of wholesale Chinese repatriation regardless of consequences is nonsense. I say emphatically that nothing shall be done to embarrass the mines so far as unskilled labor is concerned.

Party feeling ran very high, and down almost to the opening of the ballot boxes the Progressives professed that they were confident of victory. They were destined to a cruel disillusion. It was masked for the moment by their unlooked-for success in



THE EARL OF SELBORNE.
(High Commissioner for South Africa.)

South Central Pretoria, where they defeated Sir R. Solomon. Ten seats went to the Boers without a contest. When the polls were declared in the other sixty it was discovered that the Boers were strong enough to form a ministry without the aid of any of the Nationalists. The following table of candidates elected and rejected is a significant tribute to the excellence of the Boer organization:

	Candidates.	Elected.	Rejected.
Het Volk.....	45	37	8
Nationalists	16	6	10
Progressives	33	21	12
Independents	31	3	28
Labor	13	2	11
Nondescript	3	..	3
Totals.....	141	69	72

The result was decisive. The Boers had come to their own again. General Botha was sent for to form a ministry. He chose General Smuts as his right-hand man. The old commandant-general, the assistant commandant-general, form the nucleus of the new government, which has among its supporters General Delarey, General Beyers, and Mr. Schalk-Burger. It is the old headquarters staff of the republic installed in office as ministers of the King.

In the midst of the rejoicing that followed some little annoyance was occasioned by the publication of a list of the names of those persons who had been nominated by the

crown as members of the upper house. There are fifteen of them. They are for the most part nonentities. The Progressives are in the majority. General Botha and Mr. Solomon promptly published a protest against the nominations and called upon the crown to revise the list.

In reply to the protest of General Botha and Mr. Edward Solomon, Lord Selborne takes upon himself the responsibility for the selection of the members of the Legislative Council, a selection which has given almost universal dissatisfaction. He declares that the members will deal with all questions in a spirit of strict impartiality, with an eye single to the welfare of the Transvaal and of South Africa, irrespective of race or party, from which it would seem that Lord Selborne has discovered not men but angels. This is merely a case of special pleading by a High Commissioner, who has to justify himself as best he can. From many points of view it was deplorable that Lord Selborne should have been allowed to remain in South Africa. He was a member of the government who made the war, and it cannot be expected that he would be very enthusiastic in undoing the work of his own hands. From a practical point of view the composition of the Legislative Council is a matter of very little importance. The British ascendancy party has not got a majority of more than five votes in the council, and, therefore, can easily be outvoted when the two chambers vote together.

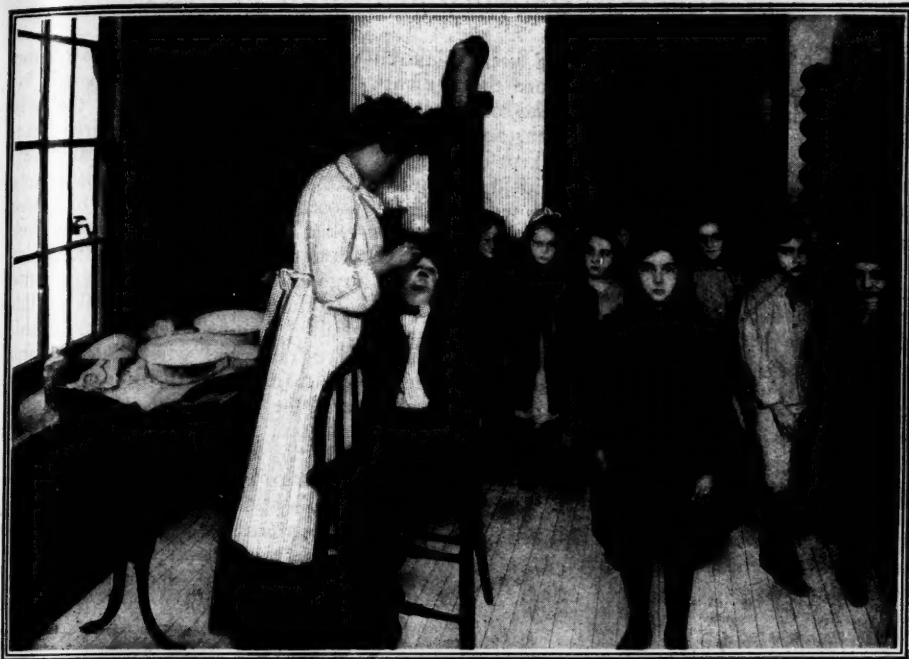
What has been done in the Transvaal will a month or two later be accomplished not less thoroughly in the Orange Free State. In the Transvaal the Milnerites thought that they had at least a fighting chance. In the Orange Free State, which Lord Milner christened the Orange River Colony,—as if a British colony could not be a free state,—the Boer majority is admittedly overwhelming. The program of the Orangia Unie party is a reform of the Education law, compulsory knowledge of English and Dutch in all government offices, the reduction of the constabulary, the abolition of the Inter-Colonial Council, and the division of the South-African railway pool. President Steyn has resolved not to re-enter public life, but he will for years to come be the power behind the throne, whoever is Prime Minister. It is probable that the Orange Free State cabi-

net will be presided over either by Mr. Abraham Fischer or by General Hertzog, both good men and true.

Thus out of the smoke and flame of a wicked and wanton war there have come peace, loyalty, and contentment. It is a magnificent illustration of the advantage of a party system. The Boers would never have trusted the jingo party that made the war, but, when the pro-Boers came into office, nothing was more natural than that they should co-operate with their old allies to settle the country and efface the traces of Milnerism.

THE GOVERNMENT'S PROFITS FROM GOLD-MINING.

Before concluding this article I would refer to one element not political, which will probably do as much as anything to secure the tranquillity and prosperity of the Transvaal. That is the extraordinary profit to the state which results from the successful development of the Premier Diamond Mine. This mine was discovered five years ago in the neighborhood of Pretoria, when a company was formed to work it, with a capital of \$50,000, which was afterward increased to \$400,000. The development of the mine was so rapid that it has in the last four years earned a net profit of \$10,000,000. Half of this has been spent in opening up the property, the shareholders have received \$2,000,000, or five times the amount of their original investment, and the Transvaal has received as its share of the profits over \$3,000,000. By the new mining law, which is probably the only valuable contribution which Lord Milner made to the welfare of South Africa, the government is entitled to 60 per cent. of the profits. Last year from this one source alone the Transvaal Government received the sum of \$1,800,000, and it is probable that its annual income from this single diamond mine will amount to \$2,000,000 a year. There is probably no other state which claims so large an amount of the profits of the minerals found on its soil. There are other mineral deposits in the Transvaal which have as yet hardly been exploited. The brilliant success of the Premier Diamond Mine does much to justify the confidence of the Boers in the prosperity of their country, even after Chinese labor has been dispensed with.



A MORNING VISIT BY THE SCHOOL NURSE.

(Children with minor ailments of the eye, skin, etc., are treated and instructed in the care of their bodies by the nurse. The boy in the chair is about to have a simple lotion applied to his eye.)

THE DOCTOR IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

THE BENEFICENT RESULTS OF A MEDICAL EXAMINATION OF CHILDREN.

BY JOHN J. CRONIN, M.D.*

ONE of the most important duties of the Department of Health of the City of New York is to prevent the spread of contagious diseases in and through the schools. Nearly all epidemics have their origin at school, and the spread of contagion among children usually takes place through the intimate association of a large number of pupils representing different strata of the population.

In 1897 the Department of Health appointed a corps of medical school inspectors, —physicians chosen after a rigid competitive Civil Service examination. The duties of the inspectors consisted in visiting their re-

spective schools every morning at a stated hour and in examining any children sent to them by the teachers for suspected contagious diseases. The inspectors excluded children found to be affected with such diseases, and readmitted them only after a second examination and after the premises where these children lived had been disinfected. This phase of the work is still continued in all the schools of the city, and the result has been a greatly diminished number of cases of contagious disease.

In 1901, under the Low administration, a corps of nurses was added to the corps of inspectors. The duties of the school nurses consist in promoting the cleanliness of the children and in treating minor ailments of the skin and eyes, under the direction of the inspectors. The corps of physicians was also enlarged and its work extended so as to

* In the preparation of this article, and particularly in the securing of photographs, the author acknowledges his indebtedness to Dr. De Santos Saxe, his colleague on the medical inspection staff of the New York City Health Department. It is proper to state that the department itself is not in any way responsible for the opinions expressed in the article.

include a visit to each classroom once a week. The children were then passed before the doctor and their general appearance, the condition of their hair, face, eyes, mouth, and throat were noted, and records were kept of the minor contagious conditions which the nurses treated at the school. This work resulted in a great improvement in the cleanliness and healthfulness of the children, and through this agency one of the most dangerous forms of contagious eye disease (trachoma) was greatly reduced in frequency among the children. The number of cases of trachoma in the schools of Manhattan Borough on March 31, 1905, was 17,710. A year later, on March 15, 1906, a careful census showed only 12,000 cases. (The above statistics are used with the permission of Dr. Thomas Darlington, Commissioner of Health, under whose administration this new work was established.)

DIAGNOSING IN TIME TO CURE.

In the course of their weekly visits the school physicians had noted many pale, improperly nourished, and apparently sick children, some of whom presented such marked characteristics of disease that no further examination was needed to know what ailed them. Some of these, with hollow eyes, flat chests, and emaciated frames, were evidently suffering from tuberculosis. Others, with subdued manner, pale lips, and breathlessness on mounting stairs, bore the outward and visible signs of heart disease. Thousands of

children with the typical expression of the "mouth breather" were encumbered by soft growths in the vault behind the soft palate (adenoids) and showed impaired hearing and retarded mental and physical development, simply because a comparatively trifling procedure,—the removal of these growths,—had not been thought of. As they went from class to class the inspectors also noted a large number of children whose tense brows and suffused eyes, whose blinking lids and close-range reading, meant nearsightedness and eyestrain, and whose languid and "headachy" manner was the despair of their teachers and the mockery of their fellows. They noted, too, in almost every class, one or more children with an insatiate desire for motion, children who were constantly reproved for being "fidgety," but who in reality needed treatment for St. Vitus' dance, or for kindred nervous affections.

Saddest of all, the doctors in every school came across pupils whose defective mental and moral make-up should have from the first excluded them from association with normal children. These were the weak-minded children of all grades, from the "backward child," that could never do the simplest sums, to the imbecile and the idiot, whose presence was obviously an offense against the normal children among whom these defectives were obliged to sit day after day.

It was evident that if the parents of these children were notified as to the existence of

(Fac-simile of card used in making physical examination in New York City schools.)

PHYSICAL RECORD.

P. S. 27 Class 2A Date 11/14/06

Name John Smith Age 9 Address 208 W. 42 St.

1. <u>Nutr.</u>	<u>G. B.</u>	10. Def. Nas. Breath	<u>X. N.</u>
2. <u>Enl. Cerv. Gl.</u>	<u>Y. X.</u>	11. <u>Teeth</u>	<u>G. B.</u>
3. <u>Chorea.</u>	<u>X. N.</u>	12. <u>Deform. Palat.</u>	<u>X. N.</u>
4. <u>Card. Dis.</u>	<u>X. N.</u>	13. <u>Hyper. Toas.</u>	<u>X. N.</u>
5. <u>Pulm. Dis.</u>	<u>X. N.</u>	14. <u>P. Nas. Growths</u>	<u>X. N.</u>
6. <u>Skin Dis.</u>	<u>X. N.</u>	15. <u>Mentality</u>	<u>G. B.</u>
7. Def. <u>Spine</u>	<u>Y. X.</u>	16. <u>Treat. necessary</u>	<u>Y. X.</u>
8. <u>Def. Vis.</u>	<u>X. N.</u>	17. <u>Nationality: U.S.</u>	
9. <u>Def. Hear.</u>	<u>X. N.</u>	Remarks: <u>Anaemia. Drinks</u>	
		<u>Coffee 2 x day. Natural</u>	
		<u>Curvature of Spine</u>	
		<u>Med. Insp.</u>	
		<u>Brown.</u>	

Subj. 20/70
Y. X. 20/50
X. N.

(B. bad. G. good. Y. yes N. no. Def. defective.)

44 K-1906

1133, '06, 26,000 (P)

"This Notice Does NOT Exclude This Child From School"

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH

THE CITY OF NEW YORK

11/14/06

1906

The parent or guardian of John Smith
 of 208 W. 42 St. attending P. S. 27
 is hereby informed that a physical examination of this child seems to
 show an abnormal condition of the Throat, Spine, Eyes,
Teeth

Remarks Anemia (Coffee). Lateral curvature of spine.
Vision 20/50 O.S.; 20/70 O.D. - Carious Teeth.

Take this child to your family physician for treatment and advice.
 Take this card with you to the family physician:

THOMAS DARLINGTON, M. D.,

HERMANN M. BIGGS, M. D.,

Commissioner of Health. -

General Medical Officer.

POSTAL-CARD NOTICES SENT OUT BY THE NEW YORK HEALTH DEPARTMENT TO PARENTS.

these manifold infirmities, and if in each case the necessary medical treatment were applied, a great improvement would result, not only in the health of the school children, but also in their capacity for school work, to say nothing of the lasting benefit to them in after-life conferred by timely treatment at an early age. Accordingly, in March, 1905, the doctors of the corps began examining each school child individually, going over a school about once a year. These examinations include the consideration of the child's general health and strength, of the condition of his heart and lungs, of the presence of nervous disease, mental deficiency, deformities of spine or limbs, as well as affections of the teeth, throat, nose, eyes, or ears. The physical record of each pupil is noted on a card filed at the Department of Health in such a manner as to be accessible at any time. If any disease or defect be found, the parents are notified by mail and are advised to consult their family physician.

While these notifications are purely advisory, and no compulsion is attached to the matter, the authority of the Department of Health is such that few parents of intelligence neglect the warning. In the great majority of instances the advice of the school physician is followed at once. Of course, there are always some people who raise the cry of "paternalism," and who object to any

interference in their "private affairs" by officials of the city. Such people insist upon their alleged inalienable right under the Constitution of the United States to have diseased or weak-minded children and to allow them to grow up as defective citizens. The same hue and cry was raised, it will be remembered, when compulsory education was first discussed in this country. Compulsory care for the child's health is just as necessary as compulsory school attendance. With our present system of public dispensaries and clinics, lack of money is no excuse for parental neglect, and such negligence should be punishable as a misdemeanor, just as a parent is now punished for neglect to provide medical attendance for a minor child under his care in case such neglect results in the death or permanent disability of the child. The school children must be educated to regard the law as to compulsory treatment as one to be obeyed, and thus the feeling that some of the children are charity patients attending a dispensary will be replaced by the simple view that they are obeying a general salutary law, like that providing for compulsory vaccination.

DEPLORABLE CONDITIONS FOUND.

While the great need for the new work of physical examinations was perceived before this work had begun, no one had ex-

pected the astonishing percentages of sick and defective children that were revealed in the first few months after the new system had gone into effect. Of 99,240 children examined in the schools of the Borough of Manhattan from March 27, 1905, to September 29, 1906, 65,741,—or about 65 per cent.,—needed some form of medical treatment. Of those 99,240 children, about 30 per cent. (30,958) required correction of defects of sight, in most cases by eyeglasses. A still larger percentage (39,778) needed attention to their teeth. There were 38,273 children with swollen glands in the neck, indicating some present or past trouble in the throat, nose, ear, or some abnormal constitutional condition. Enlarged tonsils, with their baneful effects, including liability to tonsillitis and diphtheria, were found in 18,131 children. About 10 per cent. of all the children examined (9850) were found to have adenoid growths in their throats,—a condition which predisposes to affections of the ears, the nose, and the lungs, and which interferes most seriously with the child's general health and mental development. Heart disease was found in 1659 children; disease of the lungs in 1039, and deformities of the body or limbs in 2347. Of the children thus far examined 2476 have been found mentally deficient; but probably the percentage of such children in our schools is slightly greater, as the figures thus far quoted include largely the primary grades, in which the mental development of the children is not so easily judged as in the upper classes.

When these figures were first made known even the officers of the Department of Health stood aghast. Doubts were expressed in some quarters as to the accuracy of the results. It may be said here that the corps of school inspectors now working under the Department of Health is a body of picked men, who represent the most thoroughly trained school physicians in this country. The positions are coveted, and of 800 doctors who applied for the places only 250 succeeded in passing the examinations, and of these only a few secured places.

Notwithstanding this, in order to be absolutely sure of the results, a special commission was appointed to re-examine a large number of children taken at haphazard in different sections of the city. The results showed that the figures given by the inspectors had been, if anything, too conservative. The result of a large number of eye examinations conducted by some of the foremost

specialists of the city showed identical percentages with those found by the school physicians, and thus the accuracy of their findings was verified.

RESULTS OF PHYSICAL EXAMINATIONS.

The work of examining the school children of the city had not proceeded far when letters of appreciation began to come in at the office of the Department of Health. Hundreds of parents had got their first inkling of an oncoming illness or of a serious physical defect from the postal cards sent out by the medical inspectors. In some cases cataracts that in the course of time would have permanently blinded the children were discovered during the examination, and the parents had been unaware that anything was wrong with their child's eyes. About 8000 children are now wearing glasses as the result of the examinations, and the principals and teachers are enthusiastic over the improvement in the work of these pupils. The following extract from a teacher's letter is only an example:

Since the last physical examination of my class seven girls have been fitted with glasses. The girl that was the last to be induced to go to the dispensary has shown marked improvement. Although always sitting in the front row, she seemed never to see the board and was absentminded. Now there is no girl in my class more alert or more nearly up to the standard. She always had good reasoning powers, so I could not understand why she was deficient in reading, writing, and spelling. She could not see the blue lines on white paper, but always wrote in the spaces between them. Now all this is corrected since she has the use of eyeglasses. In fact, her spelling is now perfect every day.

While the examination of vision at the dispensaries of the city is free, there is always a charge (and in some cases a sum out of the reach of the poor) for the eyeglasses prescribed. There is, therefore, an urgent need for funds to be provided by the city to supply school children with eyeglasses. School books and other school supplies are now provided free of charge by the city, and eyeglasses for those that require them are just as essential as books.

Even the children themselves have now come to appreciate the value of the examinations, especially those whose failing eyesight has been discovered and corrected. One little girl in a school on the lower East Side came triumphantly to school with the report: "I have got glasses; I had my tonsils cut, and my ringworms cured."



A GROUP OF BOYS IN PUBLIC SCHOOL 110, BEFORE THE OPERATIONS FOR ADENOIDS.



THREE OF THE SAME BOYS AFTER THE OPERATIONS.

But perhaps the most striking results in the way of physical and mental improvement have been noted in the children who have had adenoid growths or large tonsils removed. The amazing change which these children have undergone can scarcely be believed unless actually witnessed. From dullards, many of them have become the brightest among their fellows, after the operation. The following letter from one of the inspectors shows the transformation of a boy who underwent the operation:

This boy, aged seven years, was regarded by his teacher as a hopeless idiot, and his appearance justified her opinion. His was a case of most pronounced nasal obstruction, had an acrid, persistent discharge from both nostrils, his mouth was always open, and tongue and mucous membrane of the mouth were dry and covered with crusts of mucus. Hearing was defective, apparently about 8-16 in both ears. Mentally, he seemed hopeless; he would sit in his seat gazing blankly around the room, answering questions indifferently, and playing aimlessly with articles on his desk. He did not romp or play with other children, and his motions were sluggish and dull.

He was operated on, and at once improved in activity, both mental and physical,—the discharge disappeared, his expression brightened, and he became possessed with such exuberance of spirits that he became the most mischievous boy in the class.

The brilliant results attained in various parts of the city in children operated upon at home or at the dispensaries impelled the authorities to give attention to those children whose parents were too poor to pay even the necessary car fare to send them to the clinics where the operations could be performed. A number of such children were attending one of the East Side schools, where it was espe-

cially important to have the operations performed on account of the presence of a number of mentally defective children in special classes. The parents' consent having been secured in writing, these children, eighty-four in number, were operated on, on June 21, 1906, under the supervision of Dr. Emil Mayer, of Mt. Sinai Hospital.

SOME CHILDREN "BEFORE AND AFTER."

We present herewith the pictures of several of these children taken at the school before the operation. Another set of pictures shows, as well as a camera can show it, the result after the operations. These were taken in September, 1906, after the children had returned from their vacations in the country, where they had been placed in the care of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.

Placed side by side, the pictures strikingly show the marvelous transformation effected by the removal of adenoids in these cases. The dull, listless, apathetic expression, the open mouth, the staring eyes of the children are replaced after the removal of the growths by bright, intelligent countenances, and a general look of health.

The scholarship of these children has improved to such a degree that the principal, Miss Simpson, who has faithfully and enthusiastically devoted time and energy to this special work, has made the following report:

You will doubtless be interested in learning about the little ones who were operated upon last June. Without exception, we have found a marvelous improvement in these children. They all assert that they can breathe better, sleep more soundly, and have better appetites. Several of the boys have been able to give up

their habit of cigarette smoking, and all appear to be in far better physical condition; mentally, they exhibit an unusual alertness, interest, and intelligence, the absence of which was the chief and most noticeable feature of their previous condition.

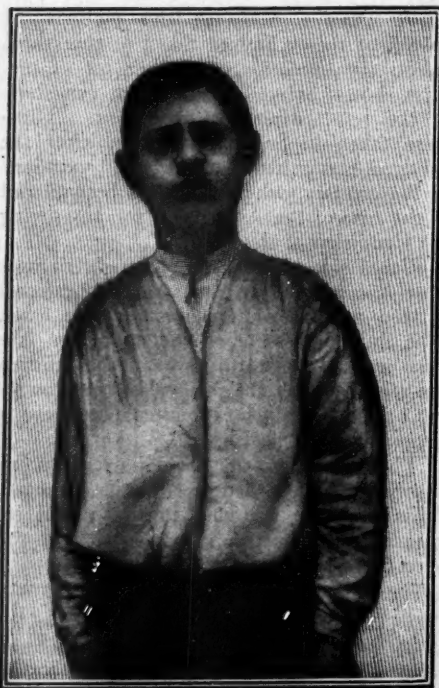
Even our lowest types of mentally defective pupils exhibit a wonderful physical and mental improvement, which can only be appreciated by those who come in daily contact with the children. Much of their abnormal restlessness and nervousness has disappeared, and they show a ready response to directions, which previously was wholly lacking, the latter probably due to their improved hearing.

An added interest from another viewpoint attaches to the particular children pictured here. They were the innocent causes of one of the most appalling riots ever witnessed on the East Side of New York. Some mischievous person had spread the rumor that the Russian Government had hired the teachers and the school doctors to exterminate the children of the East Side Jews and that a wholesale cutting of throats was going on in the schools. A week after the operations had been performed this rumor took effect in a panic in which thousands of frantic mothers stormed the doors of the various schoolhouses of the district, clamoring for their children. The pupils were dismissed

in time to avoid serious disaster. The tinder-like quality of the temperament of the foreign population, inflamed by baseless and malicious rumors, precipitated this outburst of passion, and among the clamorous mob there was not a single mother whose child had been actually operated upon. The latter had quietly remained at home, for at great pains they had been informed exactly as to what was likely to happen. Nothing in these riots could therefore be construed as reflecting the indignation of the mothers actually affected by the measures advised by the Department of Health. On the contrary, so pleased were many of the parents at the results of the operations that in the fall of the year a number of them requested the Health Department to have other children in their families operated upon, so as to give these the benefit of this treatment.

BACKWARD CHILDREN AND CRIME.

One of the most interesting phases of this work is its effect upon the education, and therefore, upon the future welfare of the backward child, the mentally deficient child, and the truant.



BEFORE OPERATION FOR ADENOIDS (JUNE, 1906).



AFTER THE OPERATION (SEPTEMBER, 1906).



EAST SIDE CHILDREN FROM PUBLIC SCHOOL 110, NEW YORK CITY.

(On their return from a vacation in the country provided by the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.)

It has been shown that 95 per cent. of "backward children" and of mentally deficient children have physical defects which can be remedied, thus improving their mentality as well as their physical health. According to the City Superintendent of Schools, 40 per cent. of the children of the schools of New York are below the grades in which they should be according to their ages. The Department of Health has found that 2 per cent. of all the children thus far examined were mentally deficient, and in nearly all these cases adenoid growths, defects of vision, or other remediable disabilities existed. In the special classes for defectives in Public School 110, 95 per cent. had adenoid growths in the throat.

When the backward child and the mentally deficient child shall receive the special attention which they require at the hands of physicians and teachers, especially when such children shall be taught in special classes or schools by specially trained educators, then only can we say that we have done all that is in our power for these unfortunates. The physical examination of backward or mentally deficient children,

therefore, is but one step in the right direction.

Moral obliquity, of which truancy is the first manifestation in school life, goes hand in hand with physical defects. Thus, among eighty-three truants examined by the Department of Health in the special Truant School in this city, 87 per cent. were found to have physical defects, in most cases of a remediable character. Truancy, and its kindred ills,—the "street habit," and the "gang habit,"—lead to crime unless speedily checked. The records of the Children's Court in New York and of the similar court in Chicago showed that nearly all the youthful criminals that were brought to these courts were truants, and, what is more, that 85 per cent. of these children were found physically defective.

The source of truancy, therefore, lies chiefly in defects which prevent children from pursuing their studies. Remove these defects, and the ability to go on with school work will be restored, while the tendency to truancy will be vastly diminished. It is as difficult for a healthy body to do and think wrong as it is for a diseased body to do and think right; as an Italian savant, Mafucci,

expresses it, "Man is responsible for the good that he does,—for the evil, the disease that is in him."

DEFECTIVE CHILDREN AND CHILD LABOR.

Deficient physical conditions and consequent inability to cope with their studies are also responsible for the large number of children who leave school early to enter factories and to form a part of the brutal system of "child labor." The physical examination of a large number of children in the upper four grades of a school on the upper East Side of New York showed that the physical condition of these scholars was far more perfect than in the lower grades. The cream of the school rises to the top, while the worthless sediment falls to the bottom and is removed in the process of the survival of the fittest. The children less well endowed physically leave school early, in most cases three or more years before graduation. In nearly all instances these children are far below the grade in which they should be according to their ages, and throughout their school course they have been backward in their studies and troublesome to their teachers on account of their physical defects. Actual poverty is the cause of leaving school early in but a very small proportion of cases, as was found by a principal who has been following the careers of his scholars for twenty-five years.

A moment's reflection will show the great financial loss to the families of these children through the fact that, leaving school in a low grade, they command but a pittance of wages as unskilled laborers, while upon graduation they could enter far more profitable fields of employment, requiring a better education. The earning capacity of the child that leaves school early is actually diminished 50 per cent. as compared to that of the child physically and mentally perfect. Thus every effort should be made by the State to keep every child at school until his elementary education is completed and until he has acquired a good earning capacity.

EXAMINATIONS VITALLY IMPORTANT.

To sum up, we may say that we have shown beyond peradventure that physical defects exist in about 60 per cent. of all school children in New York; that in most cases these defects are remediable by proper treatment, and that the early discovery of these

defects is the prime factor in the maintenance of the health of the school children and in enabling them to pursue their studies.

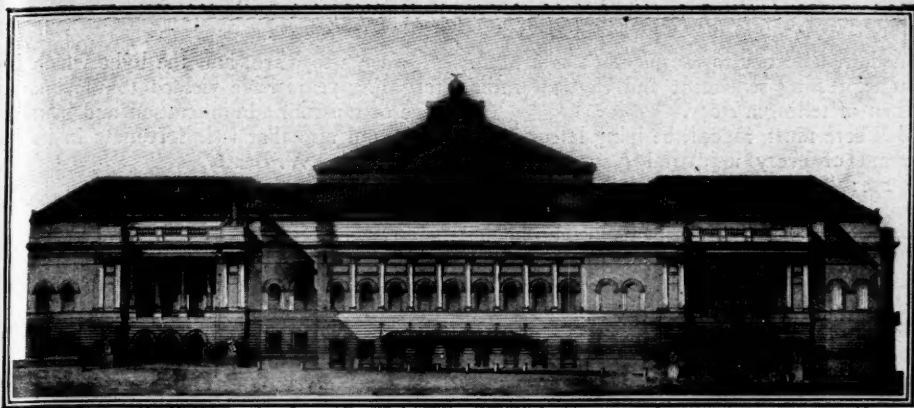
We have shown, furthermore, that backward, mentally deficient, and truant children can be vastly improved by the early recognition of physical infirmities which underlie their mental or moral defects, and that by appropriate treatment, if applied early enough, we can save these children from illiteracy, from drudgery in factories at small wages, or from an almost inevitable criminal career.

In view of these facts what can be more important than a systematic individual physical examination of every school child at stated periods, and what can be of more lasting benefit than the early application of the proper treatment in all cases in which physical defects are found?

The question as to the maintenance of the school child in perfect health is of such overweening importance that the problem of "race suicide," over which so many well-wishers of the race have grown hysterically enthusiastic, is of little consequence in comparison. The "race suicide" idea is based upon the assumption that the average American family should have a larger number of healthy children than the present birthrate shows,—an assumption clearly erroneous. As a matter of fact, physical defects go hand in hand with a large number of children, both in the rich and in the poor. The poor are more prolific than the rich, and the number of children in a family by actual count increases as the poverty of the family becomes more poignant.* A very little study of sociology will convince the advocates of the "race suicide" idea that a few perfect children are far better for the nation and the family than a dozen unkempt degenerates, who add pathos to the struggle for existence, and who sink under the inflexible law of the survival of the fittest.

The health of the school child will determine the very warp and woof of the nation's future, and the lessons taught us by the physically defective child should be heeded by every man and woman who has the future of our Republic at heart.

* This is shown, for instance, by the statistics of Bertillon, who found that in Berlin, with an average birthrate of 103 children per 1,000 women, the very poor showed a birthrate of 157 children, the comfortable classes showed 96 children, and the very rich only 47 children per 1,000 women in each class.



ENLARGED BUILDING OF THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTE, PITTSBURG.

PITTSBURG'S NEW HOME OF THE FINE ARTS.

BY FRANK FOWLER.

ON April 11, 1907, there is to be a gathering in Pittsburgh, that center of material industry, at once remarkable in *personnel* and in the object which brings this aggregation of notabilities together.

The occasion is not to celebrate the triumphs of iron and steel, the factors that have contributed to the greatness of the city; it is to memorize the conquests of the intellect, things of the mind and spirit. It has been said of the Carnegie Museum: "It aims to make this city a center of scholarship, as it has been of manufactures, and to spread its name as far as science is known and honored." And further: "The Carnegie Museum is already a strong force in Pittsburgh, but it aims to be more. It aims to be an educational power equal to the library and second only to the public schools."

The museum proper, under the direction of W. J. Holland, LL.D., is splendidly equipped along the lines of the natural sciences, and its activities touch such fields of museum work as ethnology, archaeology, and the useful arts, under which head it is accumulating collections of the textile and fictile arts, wood carving, etc.

It will thus be seen that with its usual enterprise Pittsburgh is providing, alongside its wonderful material successes, a means of keeping pace spiritually and mentally with those demands of the human mind that are sure to make themselves felt in any community where wealth exists, and the consequent leisure which wealth secures.

Possibly in a city whose mass of toilers are so largely engaged in a round of "special" employments exacted by the manipulation of the particular product it supplies to the world, no mental diversion, as a means of recreation, could be more wholesome or more welcome than that provided by a well-equipped museum.

As a matter of foresight alone, then, this splendid plant is an additional testimony to the wisdom of its founder; for we have seen above what it will aim to do, and it promises to do it with the same thoroughness that has resulted in its material primacy.

We have glanced at the intellectual aims and activities of this so recently established conservatory of science, and we will now speak particularly of some of the art treasures presented under the same auspices.

It is indeed of the art side of the Institute we would somewhat fully speak, for there is a spirit in its administration that seems much alive to the progressive tendencies of the art effort of to-day.

Whatever we may say, further on, in critical comment on the pictures in this collection will be in explanation of the qualities they possess that are in harmony with the best practices of modern painting, thus showing what Pittsburgh is doing for the art of the country by inaugurating and pursuing a policy in art so broad and up to date. And it is owing to this fact that we will mention a number of individual works, as exponents of the new impulse given to painting by the

modern tendency to use pigment as a means of expressing sentiment and emotion rather than of telling a story.

There must, indeed, be lying latent in the mind of every industrial giant a kind of sense: "What were this if this were all?" which urges him finally to provide for his fellows a means of enjoyment that he has missed, consciously missed, perhaps, amid the pressure of great business schemes and financial combinations. These giants have schemed and combined until, lo! in possession of colossal fortunes, they cast about them to open up those other horizons faintly discerned through the smoke-filled air their own enterprise has contributed to augment.

The poetic justice of this may naturally strike one,—it is obvious enough; but the particular interest in this situation is, that the same thoroughgoing spirit which marks the industrial life of Pittsburg now characterizes its efforts in the field of art.

THE ANNUAL EXHIBITIONS.

The Institute building, which was of good dimensions ten years ago, now reopens with a holding capacity enormously increased. With its extended sweep in the natural sciences it is now forging ahead as an art museum, and likely, with its financial resources and administrative talent, to take its place as one of the most important in the country. For years the annual exhibition there has been one of our strongest art shows. The policy of the Art Institute is to secure a jury selected by the vote of the exhibitors, and international in its constituents, as the exhibition is international in character. Each year artists from England, France, and Germany have been chosen, and their expenses paid to come here and serve with the American members in passing on the work to be shown. This has resulted in an exceedingly high standard, besides establishing a cordial feeling of "camaraderie" between native and foreign painters. The exhibition lapsed in 1906, owing to the derangement caused by the work of remodeling the building. It will doubtless return to the yearly exhibitions with renewed spirit in the coming autumn, for the Art Institute seems in a fair way, using an irreverent expression, "to make art hum"; but I hasten to add that this department is in no sense open to light comment on its methods in spite of its remarkable success, and of whatever may be said of some others of earlier origin.

This is perhaps due to the fact that it has

precedents to warn, and the light which intervening years have yielded to the knowledge of museum administration and installation; and also that it is fortunate in its director, John W. Beatty.

HALLS OF PAINTING, SCULPTURE, AND ARCHITECTURE.

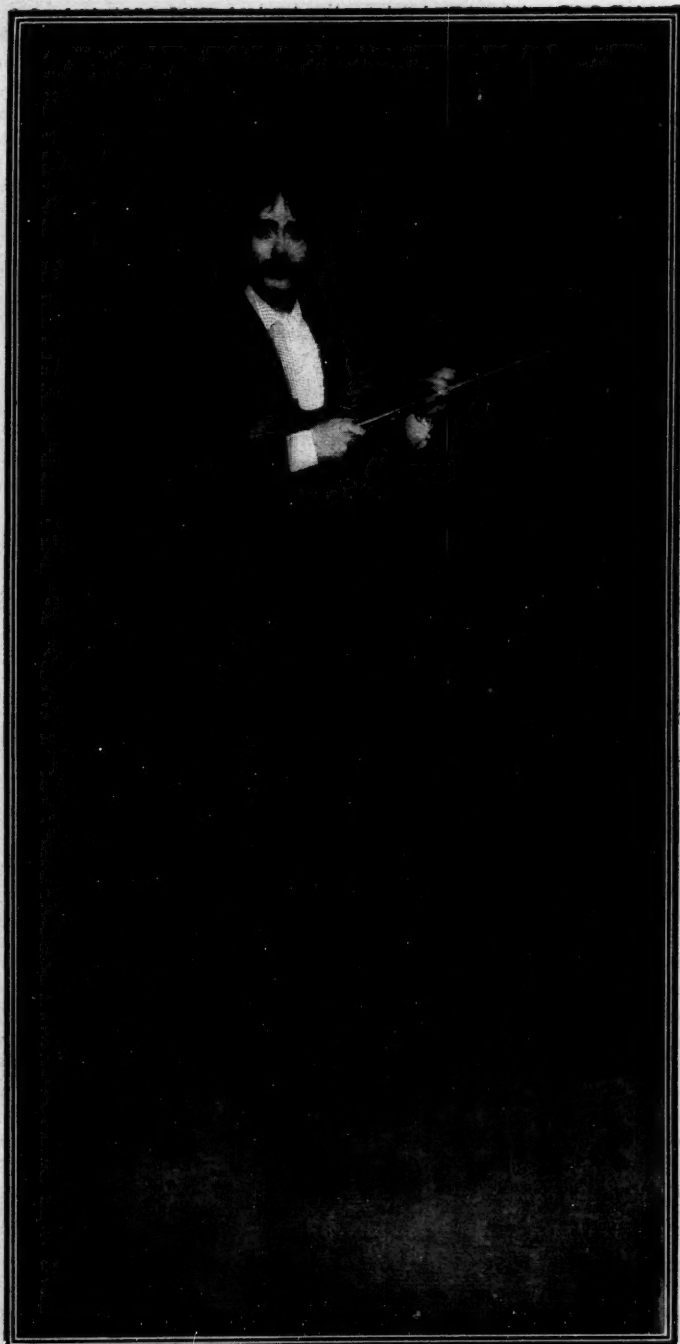
Under his wise directorship and through the munificence of the founder, the Art Institute has grown from a small collection of pictures to two splendid halls of painting, a vast rotunda devoted to architectural casts, and a gallery or hall of sculpture, supplied with reproductions of the world's great masterpieces of plastic art, including a complete collection of the Neapolitan bronzes.

An interesting feature of the architectural hall is the reproduction, full size, of the porch of the Church of St. Gilles, in the provençal town of that name. This is a beautiful example of Romanesque, full of treasures of detail, wonderfully preserved, in the minutest particular, through this perfect reproduction. Thus transported from the French town, one has but to step from Forbes Street, Pittsburg, to be in the presence of one of the finest specimens of that distinguished order of architecture.

The hall of sculpture is arranged with great judgment, and is impressive in dimensions and lighting. As it is mainly furnished with the great works that have stood the test of time, and are to be seen to a greater or less extent in most art museums, we will pass on to the galleries of paintings that have become the property of the Institute during the last ten years, and note with some particularity the quality and tendency displayed in their selection.

THEMES OF THE MODERN PAINTER.

As painting is rapidly passing out of its anecdotal and story-telling period, and devoting its medium to expressing the sentiment and moods of the natural world,—the wonders and beauties revealed to trained and cultivated vision,—one must not look here for those phases of mental enjoyment that more properly belong to literature. The art of painting is confining itself more to its legitimate means of expression. For it is not legitimate to endeavor to divert the mind by portraying in paint that which the medium of words could more effectively express,—picturing a situation, dramatic it may be, or pathetic, which if verbally told would touch the feelings more powerfully than



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WHISTLER'S PORTRAIT OF SARASATE.

when attempted by means of form and color. The true province of painting is to awaken the emotions by which we respond to the charm and beauty, the grandeur, sublimity, character and individual interest of "things seen," visually observed, as they are affected by varying conditions of light, grouping and composition.

The human form, or the forms of the animal world with their modeling, sinuosities, grace of structure, or ruggedness of shape, illumined by the light of heaven, and so controlled by a feeling for organized composition that they fulfill the function of satisfying the mind by a balanced and artistic presentation of quantity, space and mass,—these are the true subjects upon which the painter's skill may be spent. Then, too, the outside world of what we call inanimate nature,—snow-filled air, the blurred forms of house, hill and tree that reach the senses through a vague but moving sense of sight, partaking of a delicate color characteristic of the scene. The seasons,—spring, with its sense of growing things, its still and fructifying air, opalescent in color and dim with the promise of bursting life; summer, with its strength of heat and fullness of leafage; autumn, its tonal sobriety and dignity of hue, and winter, with the anatomical definition of bare branches and marvelous brilliancy of sunlit snow. Then the sea, bright and joyous, or overwhelming in destructive volume and weight, or in its shimmering beauty under the moon.

The hours of the day also come in for interpretation in modern art more generously than in the past; for did not Monet devote a whole series of canvases to celebrating the charm of the Cathedral of Rouen?—passing several years on his interpretation of the witchery of light as it shrouded or revealed, at different hours of the day, the splendid forms of this masterpiece of architecture.

Thus, morning, noon, and night are subjects for the painter. The great Millet has something of interest to say of the hours that inspire fitting themes for the brush: "Oh, how I wish I could make those who see my work feel the splendors and terrors of the night! One ought to be able to make people hear the songs, the silence, and murmurings of the air." In the fields at twilight, Millet said: "See those objects which move over there in the shadow, creeping or walking. They are the spirits of the plain,—in reality, poor human creatures,—a woman bent under

her load of grass, another who drags herself along exhausted beneath a fagot of wood. Far off they are grand; they balance the load on their shoulders; the sun obscures their outlines; it is beautiful,—it is mysterious."

These are the themes, these the emotions that lift the spirit,—these are among the fitting subjects to be interpreted through the medium of pigment. The dramatic, the sunny, the fragrant, the evanescent, the fragile, the strong!

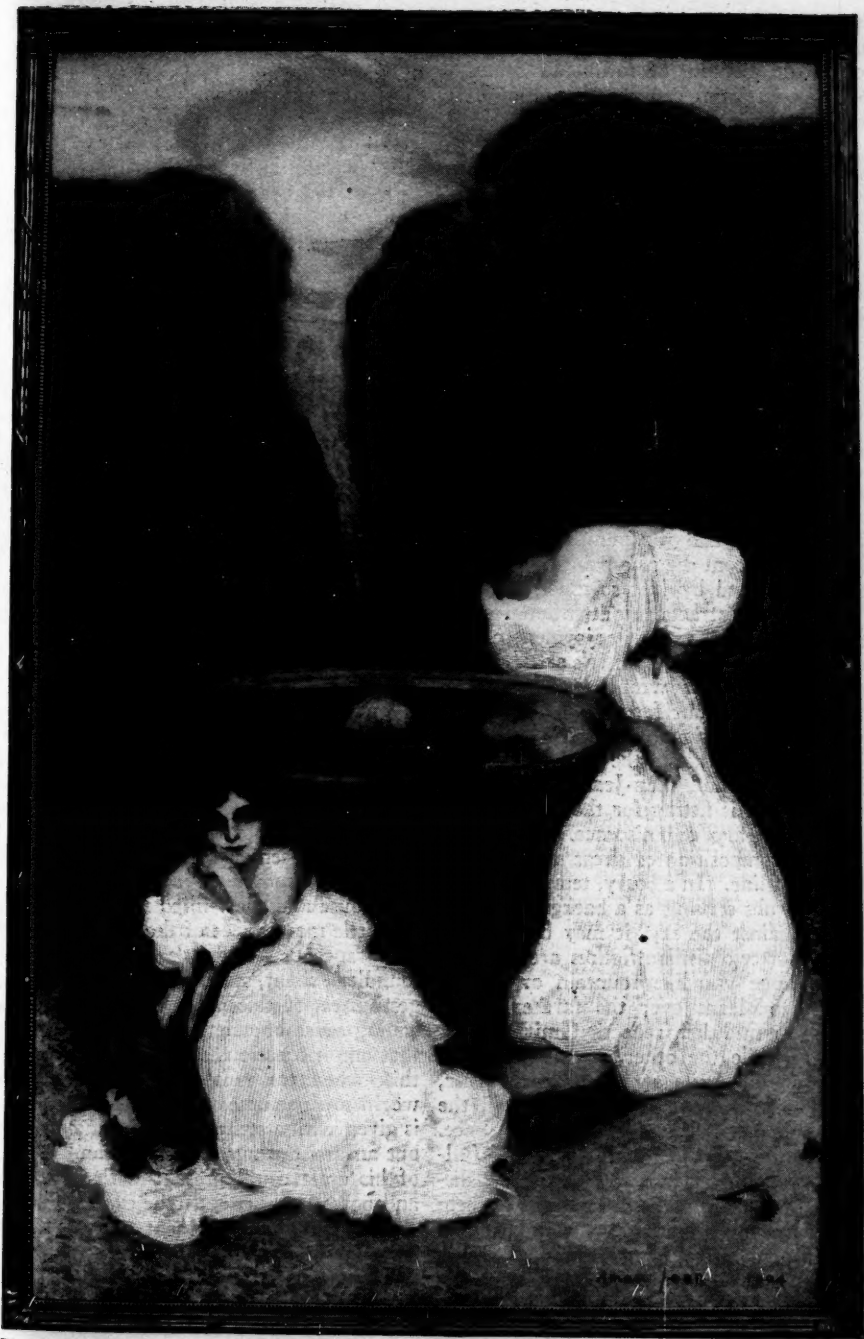
TENDENCIES ILLUSTRATED IN THE PITTSBURG COLLECTION.

We have touched upon a few of the myriad aspects of the visual world that furnish captivating and legitimate themes for the painter; we will now note the disposition in this collection to respect the work that has been done by artists sensitive to this proper field of representation.

It is a pleasure to observe how receptive the administration has been to this view of the function of painting. If the movement of art is setting this way, so, too, is the taste on the part of those who control the policy of public repositories of art. We have only to mark the contents of these galleries to feel how sane and wise has been the selection of the works thus far acquired,—how generally modern, and of the best modernity, has been the choice; for up to the present the possessions are essentially modern.

The first picture here that was acquired by purchase is Whistler's portrait of Sarasate, the violinist, which, if recalling, in tone, Whistler's well-known admiration for Velasquez, is still by a master who contributed much to the modern spirit of impressionistic painting. This sober canvas is most effective in its broad passages of simple tones, while in characterization of type it seems a poetical revelation of a musical temperament. The graphic constituents of this portrayal are so slight that one almost wonders at its power. An olive but slightly colored face, with insistent eyes, looks out at you over a white shirt front, standing, violin held against the body, and bow in the right hand, continuing the line to the upper right portion of the composition. A fragile, delicate figure in black placed well back in the gloom of the interior. This is all, but it is compelling.

There is this subtle and compelling quality in all temperamental painting which seems to distinguish it from that competent but colder craftsmanship, that conscious ef-



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"THE MIRROR IN THE VASE," BY EDMOND AMAN-JEAN.

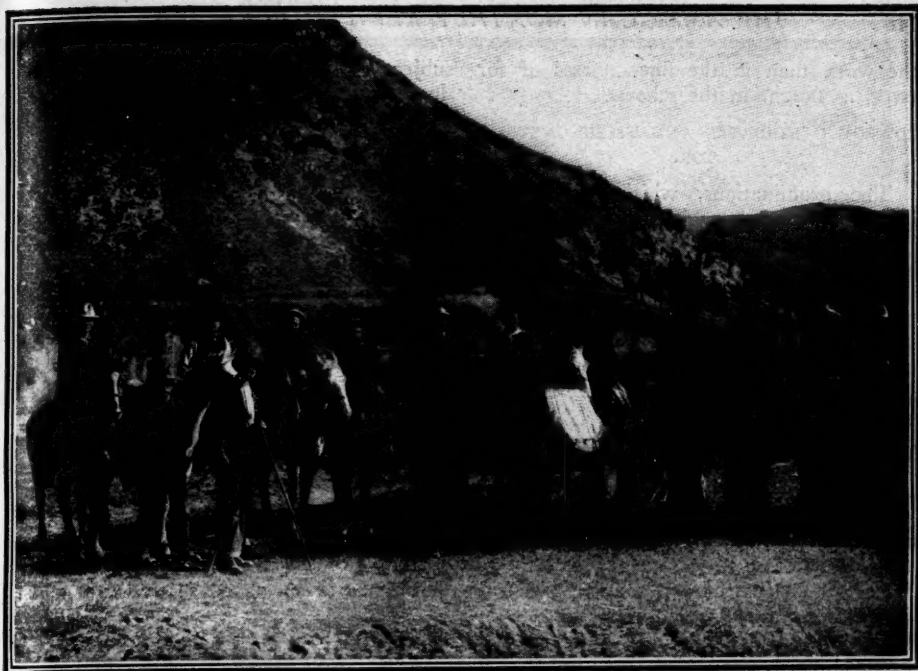
fort, with which other talents construct a scene and present it with more or less force through the medium of form and color.

Such a contrasting canvas is found in E. A. Abbey's "Penance of Eleanor, Duchess of Gloucester." Here, if you will, is a literary theme, for it is not a work painted for the sheer beauty of the subject, for the mere pleasure of mind that may be aroused by the play of light on noble forms and fascinating surfaces. This is not the single and inspiring motive of the painter; for has he not told us in the title that it is "The Penance of Eleanor, Duchess of Gloucester"?—and to fully render the artist due appreciation we must have a conception of what this penalty is expiating, and admire the ingenuity of the painter for other qualities than those which belong properly to the painter's craft,—for the skill with which he portrays, through facial expression, the workings of the mind of the punished and the punisher. This is far and away from the rôle painting is called upon to play and by just so much misleads the mind and distracts the attention from a purely critical and artistic enjoyment of the canvas as a work of the painter's art. This is, however, competently wrought, and possesses richness of color, but fails to move directly through its confusion of mingled arts.

To turn from this to the "Mirror in the Vase," by Edmond Aman-Jean, is to be conscious of what is fitting for the brush, unalloyed by literary reminiscence. This is a decorative composition of great sweetness of color and of line. In a bosky, tempered light, trees or shrubs serving as a background, and relieved against the sky, it may be at some garden end, two female figures are grouped about a huge vase-like fountain or cup of water. One leans over the farther lip of the cup to find her reflection mirrored in the pool, while the other, in a listless and dreamy attitude, sits at the near-side base, chin resting on wrist of upturned arm, the elbow supported by the up-drawn knee. These figures are the opulent forms of full-grown womanhood, and they make the disposition of lines by which the vase ties them together in the whorl of its standard and circle, in perspective, of its brimming mouth, an ingenious, graceful design, essentially lovely in its unobtrusive artfulness. The color is of a delicate and subdued tone, and the emotion this work inspires is one that has been stirred only through the legitimate uses of pigment, the emotion that responds to an object of created beauty.

Let us now consider another instance of pure emotional painting which may be found in Dwight W. Tryon's "May." This transcript of a season is a composition of great simplicity,—a reach of hillside, an intervening row of stately trees, the trees rising above the hills and showing against the sky,—in the near foreground separate trees rising still higher and bordering a brook which is touched in here and there with a taste and reserve that is highly distinguished. All this is given with an appreciation of the fragile and evanescent charm of the season depicted, which stamps this work as a beautiful exponent of the true function of painted art. These are the manifestations of the outside world that painters of to-day seize upon as the true material offered for the employment of their medium. These are the canvases that refresh jaded spirits and excite those sensibilities it is the province of painting to evoke in the human mind. And it is just here that this collection is so strong. The director and those associated with him are truly working on wise lines, and the city of Pittsburg, through them, is in the way of building up a repository of art that will be of incalculable value to the community.

We have space only to speak of one more remarkable work in this same poetic vein. J. H. Twachtman, that rare painter for whom nature seemed to exist to furnish for him themes that were the very poetry and essence of "things seen," has here a winter subject, "Greenwich Hills," which is a dim, mysterious, snowy vision of a half-buried farmhouse and snow-filled road and field. It is a little masterpiece of the cold and muffled appearance of a winter's day; everything is soundless, silent, still; but the restrained suggestiveness of this phase of nature, the pervading sense of quiet, seclusion, detachment, that one is conscious of on a blurred day like this, when the noises, the activities of the world are perforce, for a time, in abeyance, is given with a sympathy, a feeling that none but an artist who loves nature and is master of his craft could present with such poetry and power. This is a true example of what the right uses of pigment may do for the emancipation of the spirit, the uplifting of the mind through art. Towards portrayals like this is the direction in which art is moving to-day, and this was hinted at in the opening of these paragraphs on the tendency of present-day painting. This significant art Pittsburg is encouraging through the agency of the Carnegie Institute.



THE LINE-UP OF FOREST-RANGER CANDIDATES.

THE MAKING OF A FOREST RANGER.

BY ARTHUR CHAPMAN.

WHEN the United States Government put its forest-reserve policy into effect it brought into existence an interesting and unique body of men,—the forest rangers.

There are now 149 forest reserves under Government control, 146 of which are in "the States," two in Alaska, and one in Porto Rico. In Colorado, whose forests crown the watershed of the nation, there are eight great reserves, covering nearly 7,000,000 acres. Every forest reserve is in charge of a body of trained foresters, or rangers, who patrol the wilderness, guarding against forest fires, timber thieves, and poachers, and seeing that the Government is not cheated in the sales of timber that are made.

HOW UNCLE SAM PICKS HIS HELPERS.

The duties of the forest ranger are so manifold that schools of instruction are carried on, under the direction of technical experts who have studied the forestry systems of Europe, and who have had a long course of practical work in this country. The examinations, which are conducted under civil-

service rules, are most rigorous, and the unfit and incompetent are excluded at the beginning. These examinations are held at stated periods during the summer, and they show what care the Government is exercising in the selection of the men to guard its forest reserves. Not only must the successful candidate prove that he is versed in the lore of the wilderness, and that he can ride, shoot, and pack, but he must also show that he has a good education. His fitness for the rougher part of the work is passed upon by the technical forestry expert in charge of the examination, and his answers to questions testing his education are scanned by the Civil-Service Commission. Each year it is becoming more difficult to get a position as forest ranger. More qualifications are demanded as the importance of first-class forestry work becomes manifest. It seems highly probable that before long only those who have had the advantage of instruction in forestry schools will be eligible for the positions which have heretofore gone to cowboys and others who are better versed in the outdoor part of

the work than in the finer phases of forestry, as taught in the schools.

COWBOY CANDIDATES AND THEIR INSTRUCTOR.

The examinations, which are held in scores of places throughout those States and Territories that have forest reserves within their boundaries, are practically all alike. The technical men in charge have been given certain instructions which they follow to the letter. An examination lasts three days, and one which was held a few months ago at Hot Sulphur Springs, Colo., will serve as an example:

The candidates were about sixteen in number,—most of them cowboys who had been used to riding the range in Colorado. Some of them had ridden many miles, across a rough country, and all of them were certain they could come up to the requirements, as far as the outdoor part of the work was concerned. It was only the "schoolhouse work" which seemed to awe them. Nearly all were bronzed, hardy young men, used to life in the open, under all conditions of weather. One, a tall, fair-haired young Swede, had won fame as a breaker of wild horses, and his feats as a "bronco buster" were soon the

subject of admiring comment. There is seldom any jealousy among cowboys in this particular, and all are outspoken in admitting the superiority of some man who can more than equal them in feats of skill in the saddle.

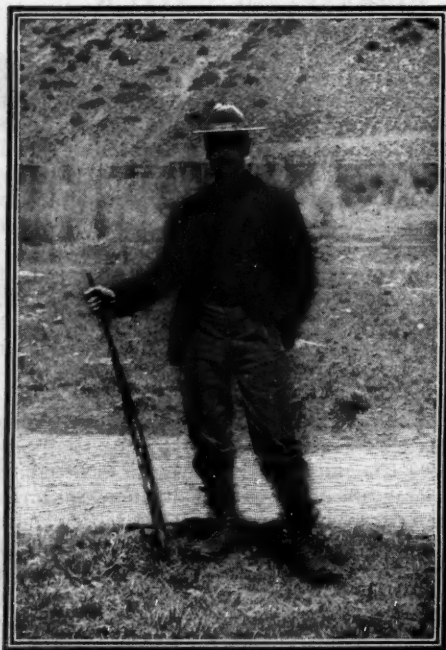
The ice was soon broken between the instructor and his pupils. The broad-shouldered, athletic young man who was delegated to represent the Government in the work was G. W. Clement, technical assistant on the great Pike's Peak Forest Reserve. Although "all business," the instructor was good-natured and patient, though literally raked fore and aft for three days by a cross-fire of questions. Many of these questions would have floored one not well posted in forestry, or given some experts a chance to air their opinions, but this young man answered every question that his instructions permitted him to answer, and he did it simply and to the point. As a result he handled those independent cowboys with as little friction as a capable teacher might make manifest in dealing with a class of infants.

DUTIES OF THE RANGER.

The examination lasted three days, the first being given over to the "schoolhouse work," as it was termed by the candidates. It is necessary for a forest ranger to be well grounded in the common branches, especially in arithmetic. The Government permits a restricted sale of timber on all reserves. Saw-mills are set up in some of the reserves, and it is the ranger's duty to see that the growth of the timber is not injured by injudicious or wholesale cutting. The ranger must select the trees to be cut, and he must be able to scale the timber at the mill, to see that cutting in excess of contract is not being done. So much timber is being cut from some reserves that they are more than paying for the expense of maintenance. The ranger who works on one of these reserves where much timber is being cut must indeed have a "good head for figgers," as one of the cow-puncher candidates put it. To allow the wily saw-mill men to trick the Government out of an excess cutting of timber would mean a speedy loss of the ranger's position.

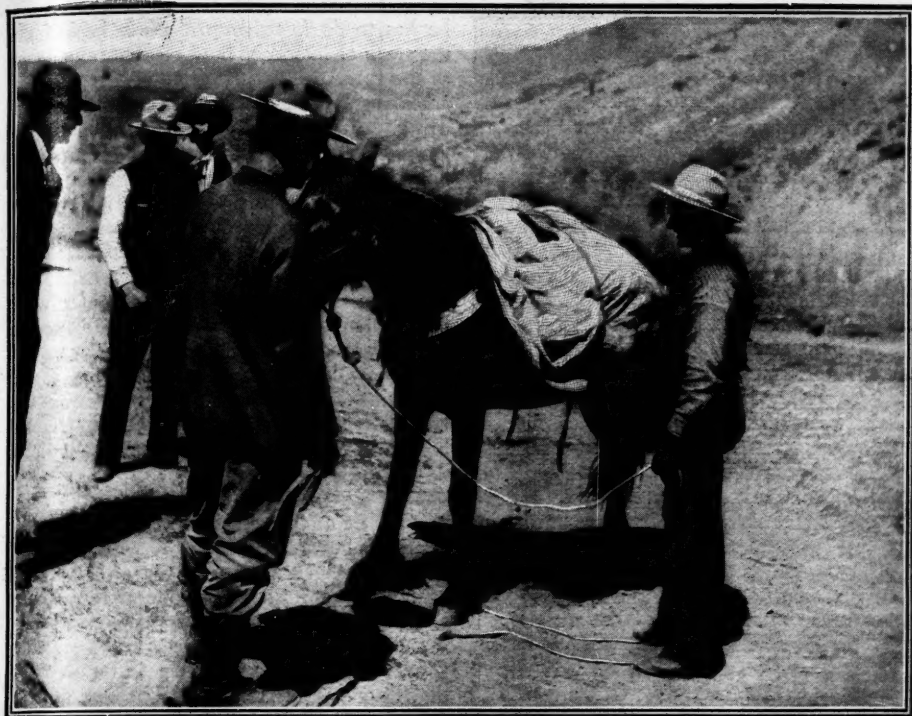
PRACTICAL FORESTRY TESTS.

The tests of the second and third day were more to the liking of a majority of the candidates. Early in the morning of the second day a start was made on horseback, the candidates being taken several miles in the mountains, where the expert in-charge of the ex-



INSTRUCTOR G. W. CLEMENT.

(Technical assistant, Pike's Peak Forest Reserve, in charge of the examinations.)



THE FORESTRY EXPERT INSPECTS A PACK.

amination put them through their paces in felling timber and other practical forestry work. The men had to show their skill, also, in following blazed and blind trails and in reading the signs of the forest. The more observant ones showed surprising cleverness, and all averaged very well at this kind of work.

On the third and last day the examination wound up in a variety of tests. The ranger candidates were put through their paces on horseback, the expert making notes of each man's skill in the saddle. Much hilarity was caused when the cowboys, most of whom could ride bucking horses "straight up," were asked to come in at a slow trot while the expert took notes.

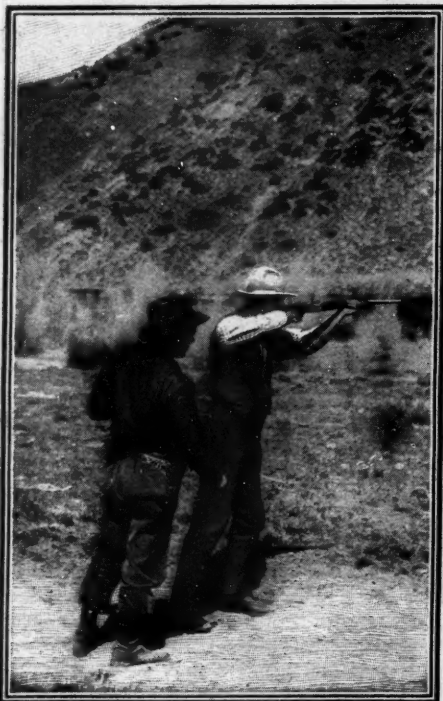
"I know it looks ridiculous, boys," he said, "but it's in the regulations, and it's got to be done."

Camp was made, and the men proved how deftly they could set up and strike a tent, how well they could build a fire, and perform other necessary feats that make life in the open worth living. In order to test the ability of each man in estimating distances the expert paced off a huge triangle, and then

the candidates filed after him, in solemn line. Each man then wrote out his estimate of the number of feet in the triangle which had been traversed.

A greater part of the day was given over to packing and unpacking a horse. This was one of the most important of the tests, as a ranger must live alone in the open, and much of the time his bed and "grub" and cooking utensils must be carried on the back of a pack-horse. A man who does not know the trick of packing will be in trouble all the time. Every article must be packed in exactly the right place, and the hitch must be cunningly thrown or the entire load will soon jar loose on a rough trail.

Most of the candidates showed their familiarity with that piece of rope magic known as the diamond hitch, by which it is possible to secure a pack so that it will not slip on the roughest trail. At the same time, a correctly thrown diamond hitch can be loosened with one pull at the end of the rope. Every process of packing and throwing the hitch was gone through with, the expert standing close at hand and making mental note of each candidate's proficiency. The ideas of



RANGER CANDIDATE PRACTICING MARKSMANSHIP.

the candidates varied somewhat, but all succeeded in making good-looking packs, that would stand the test of a rough trip.

A few minor field tests completed the examination, and the candidates swung into the saddle and rode away, the successful ones to be notified of their eligibility to the first vacancies occurring in the forest-ranger ranks.

SOLITUDE OF THE LIFE.

Once he has entered upon his duties, the young forest ranger finds himself in an employment that offers endless possibilities,—to the man of the right temperament. For it must be understood that few men are constituted with the forest-ranger temperament. A forest ranger's berth would never do for a man who cannot be alone for days, or even weeks or months, at a time. Some rangers, in the reserves farthest removed from civilization, see few faces from one year's end to the other. One ranger in Idaho lives almost altogether in a canoe. It is his duty to patrol a great lake, abounding with giant trout. About the shores of this lake he paddles his silent way during the long months of summer and fall. When he wants a meal, all

he has to do is to drop a spoon hook from the stern of his canoe, and a huge trout leaps at the lure. Or, with his rifle, he can shoot a bear as it comes to the brink of the lake to drink. At night he camps alone, in the silence of the vast wilderness, and daybreak finds him afloat in his canoe once more.

Such absolute solitude is hardly the part of the average forest ranger, but even loneliness has its compensations, no matter if a man may be assigned to patrol one of the great reserves of Alaska. A ranger always has his horses, and what does the absence of mere man count when one has plenty to eat and a new camp each night in some delightful nook in the wilderness, beside a brawling trout stream or on the shore of some great lake, in the hollow of a mountain valley?

FIGHTING FIRE ON THE RESERVES.

The life of the ranger is not all "beer and skittles," however. There is work to do in plenty. One must always be on his guard against forest fires. The tenderfeet who are always coming into the reservations on camping and hunting trips are forever starting fires where they will spread to the pines. Signs are posted along all trails through the forest reserves warning people against the danger of forest fires, and telling them to be sure to extinguish all campfires when through with them. But campers are proverbially careless, and are always going away leaving their fires burning merrily behind them. A spark flies up into a dead pine and instantly there is a tower of flame shooting into the sky. If the wind happens to be blowing strong, a roaring wall of flame is soon rushing through the forest.

At the first sign of smoke in the sky the ranger is busy. If it is a great fire he gallops for aid to the nearest forest supervisor, and all the available men are pressed into service. The Government provides for such impressment, allowing wages to those who aid the rangers in fighting fires. Trees are felled in the path of the flames, and the side lines of flame are beaten in, thus constantly narrowing the front of the fire wall. Sometimes fires are fought for days before they are overcome. Then it will be just the luck of the tired, blistered ranger if another fire breaks out in another part of the reserve, and he has to spend more days and nights in the killing work.

Campers do not start all the forest fires, however. Lightning starts many of the most destructive fires. A bolt of lightning in a

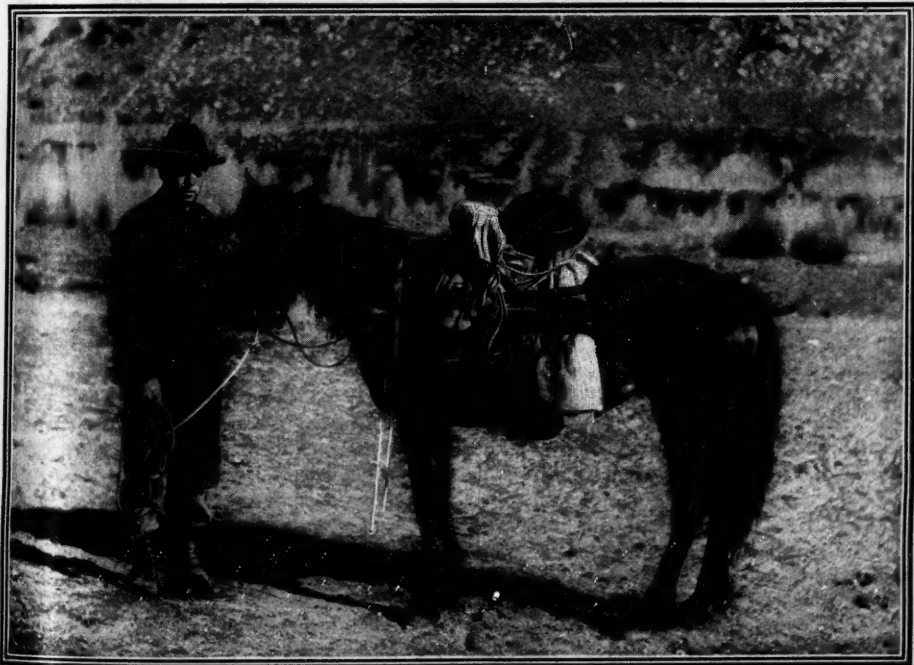
dry carpet of dead branches of trees and underbrush will soon set a blaze going. For this reason the sawmill men who operate in the forest reserves are made to clean up all debris as they go along. After a tree is felled for timber the branches are not allowed to lie on the ground, but must be gathered up and burned or carted off the reserve. As the process of weeding out the superfluous timber goes on, the inflammable carpet is removed. Much of the down timber is carted away by neighboring ranchers, as any one is permitted to gather all the dead timber he wishes for firewood; so the reserves are constantly being "cleaned up." In a few years some of the reserves that a short time ago were only tangled, primeval forests will be ideal groves, carpeted with green grass, instead of being choked with superfluous trees and piled high with an impassable breastwork of fallen trunks and dead branches.

ENFORCING THE GAME LAWS.

The ranger must see to it that everybody who comes into the forest reserve obeys the State game laws. The slaughter of game out of season on a reserve is an offense punishable under the State or Territorial laws. He must also keep bad characters off the reserves,

and, in short, act as a mounted policeman. He does not always go without opposition, and for this reason a ranger who is not accustomed to handling firearms would make a sorry showing. Down in Lincoln County, N. M., a forest ranger had a busy two days, in which he battled with five men, one being killed, two jailed, and two getting away. The ranger discovered four cattle rustlers on the reserve, killing a cow. They refused to surrender and opened fire, the ranger returning the fire and killing one of the desperadoes. The following morning the ranger followed the men who escaped and caught two of them, turning them over to the authorities. That night the ranger guarded a store at a little town, having heard that an outlaw, who had broken jail a short time before, had threatened to come in and rob the place. True to his threat, the outlaw appeared, and a duel followed, the ranger killing his man at the first fire.

There are different grades of service in the forestry work, so that the young man who begins as a ranger has an excellent opportunity of getting something better. But the life in the open appeals to many young men who do not care for anything more alluring than a chance to ride the reserves.



AN IDEAL PACK ON SADDLE.

THE REVOLUTION IN CHICAGO'S JUDICIAL SYSTEM.

BY STANLEY WATERLOO.

WHAT might be called an operation for cancer has been performed upon the city of Chicago, and has proved successful. The growth, of the most malignant sort, has been cut out to its uttermost vicious fiber, and the patient has not only recovered from the shock, but is in excellent spirits,—an admirable symptom in a convalescent. In other words, Chicago, as the result of sternly radical legislation, is rid of the most infamous petty judicial system ever existing in the United States.

This travesty on the administration of justice has had its being through what have been known as the "justice shops." They have been the centers from which have issued daily a group of brigands preying upon all classes of the helpless. They have afforded the machinery by aid of which justices and constables, notorious collection agencies, shyster lawyers, and usurers, and pawnbrokers have fattened upon the weak, and by aid of which shrewd malice has been gratified a thousand times.

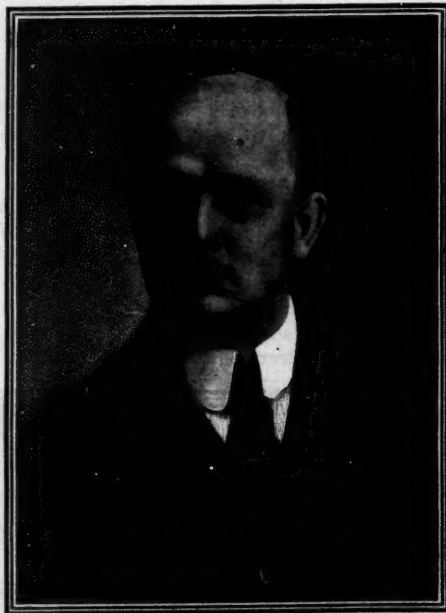
The city of Chicago, in the matter of its judicial machinery, has been governed by the system applied to the rural districts of the State from the beginning of its history. In Illinois, from its earliest settlement, there were two systems of government, the town system of New England and the county system of Virginia. Two important officers of these systems were the justice of the peace and the county constable. The latter office is of the same antiquity as that of king, while

the office of justice of the peace was created by a series of statutes in the reign of Edward III., with the idea of ending the brigandage which flourished in England at that time. Robbers then seized travelers and held them for ransom; and, as a reversal, to put a

stop to brigandage in Chicago, where, under the forms of law, property had been seized as boldly, the offices of justice of the peace and constable were recently abolished.

The justices of the peace were recommended by the judges of the Circuit Court and appointed by the Governor. The constables were elected by the people. There were fifty justices within the city limits and 125 constables. Of the conditions under which they worked it may be said simply that, while many of the justices of the peace were men of ability and character, they

were on a fee basis, and hence the more litigation and continuances the more fees, the result being that judgments were often given for no other reason than that the plaintiff patronized the particular court. The constables were likewise on a fee basis, and these men became legalized bandits. Abundant opportunity was offered for plunder and oppression. The justices had jurisdiction in civil cases in suits involving sums up to \$200 and in the minor quasi-criminal and criminal cases involving breaches of the peace, and had the right also to sit as examining magistrates in preliminary hearings of charges of felony or State misdemeanors, with power to bind over to the grand jury.



CHIEF JUSTICE OLSON, OF THE NEW CHICAGO MUNICIPAL COURT.

INCREASE OF LITIGATION AND CRIME.

Chicago has been the focal point of immigration into the interior of the United States. According to the last census, over half a million of its people are foreign-born, and over a million more are of foreign descent. In area the city is the third in the world, and, necessarily, a vast amount of litigation has been engendered in the contact of this great number of people of different nationalities in such a mighty industrial and commercial center. In the justice-of-the-peace courts about 100,000 civil cases were brought last year, and about 60,000 criminal cases were disposed of. Last year 19,000 persons were arrested for State felonies and misdemeanors, whose cases, in the form of a preliminary hearing to determine whether or not the individual should be held to the grand jury, were heard in the justice courts. Of this number, only about 3000 were bound over to the grand jury; the other 16,000 were released, gave straw bail and fled, or otherwise and for other reasons avoided punishment. Either thousands of people who should have been bound over escaped or thousands of innocent people were wrongfully arrested. Both conditions prevailed. In short, under the justice-of-the-peace system the criminal statistics of the city became so startling that its criminal court, in volume of convictions for felonies and misdemeanors, had become one of the greatest criminal tribunals in the world.

JUSTICES OWNED BY "THE ORGANIZATION."

The methods of the legalized robbers of the justice courts were daring beyond all precedent. The courts were, firstly, political organizations, then but machines existing for purposes of plunder. Here is the account,—practically a recent confession,—of the inner system, the detailed workings of these mills to which all forms of weak human nature was grist:

The justices designated as police magistrates, selected by the Mayor and confirmed by the city council, must, in the first place, have the recommendation and approval of the dominant alderman of the ward in which their courts were located,—there are two aldermen from each ward in Chicago,—and it followed, as a matter of course, that this approval could be obtained only when the justice became a creature ready to obey every order or suggestion of his master. This for the alderman was a vast political asset, es-

pecially in the downtown wards. The partiality of the court was necessary to keep under absolute control the under-world, the so-called "Levee" characters, the more ignorant of the foreign population, and disreputables generally, that their votes might be commanded at election time. The object-lessons given almost daily and nightly had the merit of a grim simplicity.

THE BAIL-BOND ABUSE.

Should it become necessary to place the proprietors of a disorderly house under obligations the police would make a raid,—for the police were an enforced part of the machine,—and patrol-wagon loads of prisoners would be brought in under the general charge of violation of the city ordinances. Then the mill would begin to grind with a sinister intelligence. First were utilized the bail-bond privileges.

These privileges went first to some trusted lieutenant of the alderman. He owned them; he or his agent would be at hand when the loaded patrol-wagons came in, frequently carrying in his pockets bonds already signed and which would later be approved by the justice whenever he appeared, merely for the convenience of the alderman's representative. Then as a condition of temporary release there would be collected from the prisoners whatever might be, according to their condition. Some could "make good," some could not. No pretense existed that the arrests were made for the purpose of eradicating an evil; the victims were simply captives, held for ransom, and when the ransom was forthcoming those released were plying their vocation again within an hour. Dismissal "on payment of costs" would be the decision the next morning, unless there chanced to be among the prisoners some whom the alderman wished disciplined.

The whole quality of the courts was vicious. The bailiffs were trusted agents of the aldermen, and were appointed by the Mayor on their recommendation. They owed their obedience first to the aldermen, second to the court. They kept a systematic account of all the arrests within their wards and of the disposals, and were active agents of the professional bailman. In the event of a jury trial they secured the kind of a jury required, and would be counted derelict should they fail to notify the professional bailman or alderman of matters in that court wherein they were interested.

The clerks, appointed in the same way,

and confirmed by the council, were not less venial. Their principal duty, not provided by law, and to which they gave more particular attention than they did to their legal duties, was to receive a list each morning with numbers which indicated and corresponded with the numbers of certain defendants on the sheet of the police magistrate when appearing before him for trial. These numbers were in the nature of absolute orders from the alderman, either to liberate, regardless of facts, or assess a heavy fine. Such fines were in the way of political discipline. A rebellious precinct leader or any of the political hangers-on whom it was thus sought to bring to his senses would be offered the alternative of going to the Bridewell or of paying the fine. If he recognized his condition in due time, a quiet suggestion would be made by the clerk that he had better see Alderman D—— or Alderman J——; and, should he make his peace, the clerk would be complaisant and, without an order, remove from the magistrate's sheet by his knife or rubber eraser the amount of the fine, and substitute therefor the order of dismissal.

Pickpockets and other criminals were treated with equal consideration when they had money. The whole system was a farce, applied to enrich a favored few and for the acquirement of absolute political power in a ward, and the attitude of the justice's courts in civil cases was not less vicious.

TRICKS EMPLOYED IN CIVIL ACTIONS.

The constables were in league with fraudulent collection agencies, pawnbrokers, and shyster attorneys. Any sort of claim would do for them, provided the defendant had no influence. The tricks adopted were as numerous as infamous. Citizens were often sued and summoned before a justice in some distant part of the county, thirty miles or more from their homes, and the cases set ten minutes before the arrival of the early morning train. If the defendant came to court by that train he came too late; a judgment had been entered against him. If he came the night before and camped on the prairie to be ready for the case in the morning, the watchful constable would ask a continuance for the plaintiff for another day,—and get it. The constables frequently failed to get personal service, but that did not matter. The writ when returned showed service, and judgment was entered, all unknown to the defendant, who received his first warning when armed men, constables, came to his

home to seize upon anything of value, in the guise of making a legal levy. Men have been shot by these brigands, and women robbed of their jewelry and personally assaulted. Probably never anywhere in the system of the judiciary of any country have such outrages been committed. No citizen, unless his case was of such magnitude that it was heard in the higher courts, was certain of obtaining justice or redress for wrongs.

REVOLUTIONIZING THE JUDICIARY SYSTEM.

And so the evil grew,—a cancer is the only simile,—until its scope became alarming. Why it was tolerated so long in a civilized and strenuous community is beyond all understanding, save on the theory that only the comparatively helpless were the victims of the tyranny. But when the climax came, as it did, it came with a vengeance. The people of Chicago demanded the complete extirpation of the justice-of-the-peace and constable system. The very names had become offensive. Through the activity of what is known as the New Charter Convention a bill was introduced for the obliteration of the courts which had become infamous, and substituting in their place a court of a kind practically unknown before. Of course, there was desperate opposition by the gangsters, but the measure became a law.

Here was the Municipal Court, as it is called, a new court of a new kind to be tested amid surroundings municipally inimical, and, if not oppressive, by no means favorable. With those lately controlling politically the machinery of the justice courts the attitude toward this new force is much like that of the natives toward the American occupation of Cuba. It is recognized by the majority as a good thing, but is endured, if not sullenly, at least without enthusiasm. This interloping and powerful body assuming the administration of justice on so wide and sweeping a scale has been, necessarily, the dealer of swift blows to an army of professional politicians and the horde who subsisted, as has been told, upon the weaklings.

The make-up and scope of power of the Municipal Court indicate a new departure, absolutely, in the administration of the law, especially in cities. Not a jurist, not any one interested in the welfare of any municipality, but must be interested in its nature. The new court consists of a chief justice and twenty-seven associate judges, a clerk, a bailiff, and nearly 100 deputy clerks and 100 deputy bailiffs. The bailiff and his

deputies are *ex-officio* police officers of the city of Chicago, and every police officer of the city is *ex-officio* a deputy bailiff of the Municipal Court, and may be required to perform such duties in respect to criminal and quasi-criminal cases pending in the court as may be required of him by any judge.

PERSONNEL OF THE NEW MUNICIPAL COURT.

The twenty-seven associate judges are most of them young, like the chief justice, and of a high order of ability and integrity. The *personnel* of the new court is something admirable. None of the judges is a professional politician. They are, almost without exception, lawyers of standing at the bar and recognized in the community as men of worth and honesty. In fact, if criticism were to be made, it might be that one or two of the justices have shown slight symptoms of being, one might say, not men fully of the city world nor always wisely flexible in their rulings in recognizing the wide difference between morals and law, and that this is not an age of Puritanism. This, however, refers to only one or two of them. In a large measure, the tone of this new and anomalous court depends, and must continue to do so, upon its chief justice, Harry Olson. He directs its formative course. Though comparatively young, he was known as a lawyer of ability before he became the chief figure in the State's Attorney's office, where his record as a prosecutor was a brilliant one. He is earnest, honest; is an indefatigable worker, and, above all, has in a marked degree the intelligent constructive ability; and there still exists in his veins enough of the Norse blood to enable to him to run bareback should the occasion really demand it.

UNUSUAL POWERS OF THE COURT.

But it is because of the extraordinary power conferred upon the Municipal Court that it must attract greatest attention. It is almost Russian in its quality, when there is considered the beneficent despotism the law bestows upon it. The chief justice is a czar in his way, and the court as a whole is singularly independent, and endowed with powers leaving much more to the discretion of its judges than has been the case heretofore in legislating for courts in cities. Here are departures to interest every student of jurisprudence, every thinking citizen who has at heart his city's welfare.

The jurisdiction of the court is partly direct, consisting of cases of which it has

original jurisdiction, and partly indirect, consisting of cases which may be transferred to it by other courts of competent jurisdiction, such as the Circuit, Superior, and Criminal courts. Its direct jurisdiction in criminal cases extends to all cases excepting those where the punishment may be death or confinement in the State penitentiary. Its direct jurisdiction in civil cases embraces all actions at law for the recovery of money or personal property. Its indirect jurisdiction embraces all suits of every kind and nature, whether civil or criminal, and whether at law or in equity, which may be transferred to it from the Circuit, Superior, or Criminal court of Cook County. Its decisions are subject to review only by the Appellate and Supreme courts of the State.

The chief justice is vested with special powers and, in addition to the trying of cases, has general supervision of the work of the court. Among other important powers, he assigns the different judges to such courts and to such classes of work as he may deem best. He has general supervision over making up calendars of the court, and can determine the order in which cases should be tried. He can hasten the selection of jurors, being empowered to judge himself of their qualifications, and the result has been most admirable. Precedent, the dragging methods of other courts, have been abandoned. Not reckless, but practical, has been the new departure.

What has this court of about two months' existence already accomplished? In the first place, it has made a clean, wholesome, American atmosphere in the judicial strata lying next to the ground in Chicago. Police methods have undergone a vast change for the better; the notorious collection agencies and the shyster lawyers have found business unprofitable; the straw bailer is of the past; the influential alderman has lost his "pull" in interference with the administration of justice; the poor have found speedy redress for wrongs, and the powerful cannot oppress.

No less than 1600 civil cases and over 7000 criminal cases were disposed of within the first month. The fines, costs, and fees of the first month amounted to \$30,000, with a prospect of amounting to \$500,000 per year, a sum sufficient to make the court self-sustaining.

Chicago is trying an experiment in law-making and law-enforcing, for the benefit, hopefully, of herself, and, possibly, as an example for other cities of the world.

THE PROTECTION OF HUMAN LIFE ON AMERICAN RAILROADS.

[The serious interest that the American people are now taking in the subject of railroad accidents and their prevention is well illustrated in the three articles which follow. These "volunteer" contributions, written by men of different callings in life, widely separated geographically, and without consultation with one another, all alike voice the general demand that the lives of passengers and operatives shall be more effectually safeguarded by the railroad companies. Each writer attempts to show how present conditions may be improved.—THE EDITOR.]

I.—CAN THE RAILROAD DEATH RATE BE REDUCED?

BY ARTHUR M'TAVISH*.

WHEN we glance at our papers of a morning and are horrified by the accounts of fresh massacres of Christians in Armenia, Jews in Russia, or missionaries in China, do we realize that we are daily patronizing an institution right here at home, under our very noses, which, in this glorious, free, and prosperous country, is annually sacrificing more lives and leaving more maimed and useless cripples behind it than can be charged to the accounts of Turkey, Russia, and China combined?

The institution we refer to is the American railroad, which year by year is offering up a steadily increasing number of victims to the all-prevalent "get-rich-quick" mania. Perhaps the very nearness of this evil renders the far-sighted public eye oblivious to its presence.

The latest official statistics published by the Interstate Commerce Commission (Bulletin No. 20) give the total number of passengers on, and employees connected with, moving trains, killed and injured in the United States during the year ending June 30, 1906, as follows:

Passengers killed.....	418
Passengers injured.....	11,185
Employees killed.....	3,807
Employees injured.....	55,524
Total.....	70,934

This number, large as it is, does not represent the total number of persons killed and injured by our railroads by far, as these quarterly bulletins do not include those killed at grade crossings or trespassers.

However, as it is the intention of this article to treat only of a special class of casualties, and as that class is included in the foregoing figures, we shall for present purposes omit the other causes of death or injury.

* "Arthur McTavish" is the pen-name of a railroad signal engineer of 24 years' operating experience. He is qualified to speak as an expert.

Further analysis of the Commission's figures shows us that of the total here given 180 passengers and 313 employees were killed and 6661 passengers and 6025 employees were injured, in collisions and derailments, or between 18 and 19 per cent. of the whole.

It is to this last item that we will confine this article.

Municipal and State authorities are interesting themselves in other causes of casualties, principally grade-crossing accidents, and are doing good work in eliminating these crossings, but little if anything of practical value is being done to prevent collisions and derailments. Most States have a more or less strict regulation requiring trains to stop before crossing other railroads at grade, where the crossings are not protected with interlocking signals and derails; and junctions and draw-bridges are treated in the same way; but these laws are not often rigidly enforced, and are generally interpreted in a very free and easy manner by the railroads. In one of the largest Central Western States even this regulation does not exist; and in another State a crossing gate with signals and torpedo placers,—an arrangement worthless as protection,—is actually legalized, and trains are allowed to run crossings so equipped at speed.

DEFECTIVE EQUIPMENT OF SWITCHES.

The bulk of the railroad mileage in the United States is single track, so that every switch in the main track must be what is known as a facing-point switch,—a name which carries its own significance,—for trains moving in one direction or the other. And how are these switches secured? In ninety-nine cases out of a hundred by a common switch-stand; a cheap ramshackle affair spiked to one or two long ties and locked with a common padlock. Aside from the

danger of the switch being left in the wrong position by a trainman or maliciously so placed by some one with criminal designs, which latter is readily done by knocking off the padlock, there is the danger,—and a very fruitful source of accident it is,—of having the rod that connects the switch to the switch-stand break or become disconnected from either, allowing the switch to open under a passing train. This results in part of the train continuing along the main track, while the other part is shunted off to the side-track, a performance always ending in derailment and generally in the overturning of some of the cars. It has frequently happened, also, that the ties to which the switch-stand is fastened decay so as to allow the switch-stand and connections to move, opening the switch and accomplishing a similar result.

reached, and after that, the switch being movable and working as it were on hinges at "Y" "Y" it is forced over by the wheels, which are rigidly fastened to their axle, into the position shown by the dotted lines, thus allowing them to pass out to the main track just as if the switch were properly set for that purpose. The switch-stand remaining firmly locked, however, something must give way, and usually the rods "a" "a" are bent, thus decreasing the distance between the two switch-points. Suppose, instead of one pair of wheels as shown, that this movement was made by a whole train, the rods "a" "a" having been bent, the switch-point hinging at "Y" "Y" cannot resume its original position of closing up tightly against the rail "X" and consequently a space is left between it and this rail. The opposite switch-point usually springs back far enough to leave a similar

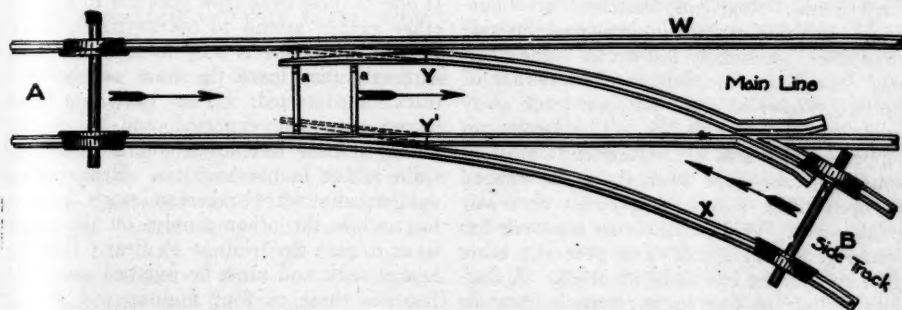


DIAGRAM TO ILLUSTRATE THE WORKING OF THE ORDINARY RAILROAD SWITCH.

There is yet another and greater danger connected with the use of the common switch-stand. This is known as the switch having been "run" or "trailed" through, an expression which will possibly require a detailed explanation to the uninitiated. The accompanying diagram will show the general plan of the ordinary switch now in universal use. In the diagram the switch is set in the position for the main track, so that the pair of wheels at "A" moving in the direction of the arrow will be guided along the main line. Eliminating "A" and supposing the switch in the same position, let the wheels at "B" move in the direction indicated by the double arrow until they reach the position shown by the wheels at "A," or, in other words, onto the main track. This movement in itself will not cause the wheels to leave the track, as rail "X" is continuous and the gauge of the track constantly maintained until the heel of the switch at "Y" is

opening between it and the main rail "W." It can be readily seen that in this condition if a train approaches in the opposite direction,—viz., that shown by the arrow at "A,"—the flange of the first wheel moving along rail "X" will pass between the switch-point on that side and the rail, the wheel continuing along rail "X" to the side-track, while the flange of the wheel moving along rail "W" passes between the switch-point on that side and the rail, and the wheel continues along rail "W." As rail "X" and rail "W" do not remain parallel, the wheels soon reach a point where the distance between the rails is greater than the distance between the wheels, and one wheel or the other leaves the track, derailing the train. The papers cry out against the fatal open switch. The officers of the railroad declare the switch was tampered with by some miscreant supposed to be a recently discharged employee. The coroner's jury brings in an

ambiguous verdict. The railroad company settles with the injured and heirs of the killed for as small amounts as shrewd and experienced lawyers can induce them to accept, and the whole matter is hushed up as soon as possible. Many railroad men believe that the wreck of the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern eighteen-hour train at Mentor, Ohio, in 1905, was due to this very cause.

There are, of course, derailments caused by obstructions accidentally or maliciously placed on the track; by wheels, axles, or rails breaking; by trains pulling apart and couplers or brake-rigging falling down and throwing cars off the track,—this latter happens only to freight trains,—but the vast majority of derailments are at switches, from the causes explained above.

COLLISIONS IN STATION YARDS.

We next come to collisions, which are of three kinds: Rear-end, head-end or "butting," and one train running into the side of another, technically known as "side-swiping." It is possible, but rare, for either of the two former to occur on open track away from stations or switches. The latter can happen only at a switch. Rear-end collisions sometimes take place when trains are stopped on open track to cool hot boxes or repair breakdowns. When this occurs some one has shown gross negligence, and generally more than one person has to be involved. A flagman failing to flag back promptly may be the culpable person, or it may be the engineer on the following train, who, asleep or failing to keep a sharp lookout, runs by the flagman and often pays the penalty with his life. It is safe to say that the bulk of this sort of collision occurs at or near stations where trains have stopped to head in on passing tracks, take water, unload passengers or freight, etc.

Butting collisions also rarely occur away from stations. When they do the fault is easily traced to some one, usually the train dispatcher or block operator.

As before stated, "side-swiping" can happen only at or near a switch of some sort, and switches are nearly always placed near stations.

The dangerous point, therefore, may be considered as within the station limits, and that is where the remedy should be applied. The reason for this being the danger point as far as derailments are concerned has already been pointed out, so that there only remains to show its connection with colli-

sions. It is at stations that irregular movements are carried on: switching, setting out cars, etc. Movements to and from the main track are, of course, controlled by the switches, and it is the usual practice to leave these switches entirely in charge of trainmen or switchmen. Imagine a freight train arriving at a station where it has to leave some cars and perhaps pick up others from two or three different tracks. Perhaps a passenger train is due in thirty minutes. This passenger train is to pass the freight train at this station. The conductor of the freight believes he has time to do his work and clear the main track before the passenger train arrives. He himself, the most responsible man on the train, goes into the office to leave the waybills for the cars which he has to set out and to get the waybills for the cars which he is to pick up, telling his two brakemen what he wants them to do in his absence. If one of these brakemen goes out to flag, the other cannot attend to the switching alone, and the conductor is busy in the office; consequently they leave the train on the main track unprotected. The switching takes longer than they expected, and before they realize it time has flown and the passenger train is due in five minutes. Realizing the danger, the rear brakeman starts back to flag, while the other couples on the engine so as to pull the train in to clear. The air-brakes stick and must be pumped up. This requires three or four minutes. The train is perhaps a third of a mile long; the rear brakeman running as fast as he can along the roughly ballasted track cannot get far enough past the rear of the train to stop the passenger train, and the collision occurs.

THE REMEDY KNOWN AND TRIED.

The remedy for this dangerous, and one might almost say uncivilized, condition of affairs is very simple and there is nothing experimental about it. England and Continental Europe have had this remedy in practical operation for forty years, which accounts for the few collisions and derailments on their railroads. Like most good things, the remedy costs money, and no trivial item at that. The people of this country can never expect relief from present conditions, if that relief is to be the spontaneous act of the railroad companies. Time was, when our railroads were smaller and the owners and operating officers closer to the people than they are to-day, that the popular demand received some consideration, and an honest ef-

fort was frequently made by railroad companies, even at considerable expense, to improve conditions and increase the safety of travelers and employees. Our railroad companies have grown to such enormous proportions, however, and are in the hands of pure speculators to such a degree that nothing toward this end can be accomplished except by national legislation. The granting to the Interstate Commerce Commission of powers similar to those which the government of England has vested in the London Board of Trade would very soon clear up the situation. Nothing was done toward the establishment of a standard safety coupler until Congress took action, and a hundred thousand men to-day have their full complement of hands, feet, and fingers with which to earn a livelihood who otherwise would have been permanently crippled and their earning power lost or minimized.

BLOCK SIGNALING AND THE INTERLOCKING SWITCH.

What we want is, first, enforcement of block signaling on all our railroads, and, second, the interlocking of all main-track switches. The principles of block signaling are reasonably well understood by the public at large and need not be dealt with here. The term "interlocking" is purely technical, and but little understood even by railroad men outside of those actually engaged in its operation and maintenance. We will therefore give a short explanation of its meaning:

There are three features, or, as usually known, functions in each interlocking device. These are, first, the throwing device, by which a switch is moved to or from its normal position; second, the lock, by which it is secured in a position of safety for the passage of a train so that it cannot come open while the train is passing over it, which, as explained before, frequently happens with the common switch-stand; third, the signal, by which a train is notified that it is safe for it to proceed over the switch. It is readily seen that these functions must be put in motion in the order given, that is, the switch must be set for the route the train is to take; it must then be locked in that position, after which the signal must be displayed for the train to proceed. *Vice versa*, the signal must be restored to its normal position of "stop" before the switch can be unlocked and moved. There are various sorts and kinds of interlocking machines,

but they all embody the foregoing general principles.

In order to facilitate the movement of trains when the switches are controlled in this way it is usual to operate the various functions by levers, all placed together in a frame within easy reach of an operator, as it would manifestly lead to confusion if one man were expected to set the switch while another controlled the signal governing it. Electricity, compressed air, and manual power are the means by which the various functions may be actually moved on the ground, but whatever it may be it is put in motion by some form of lever handled by the operator, and these levers are so interlocked,—whence the name,—with each other that the operator is powerless to move them in the wrong order. Further than this, each lever must have been moved all the way and each function must have fully performed its duty before the next function can be set in motion. To demonstrate: If the switch has not made its full movement and closed up tight against the stock rail (rail "X" or rail "W," as the case may be), it is impossible for the operator to move his lock-lever, and until his lock-lever has been moved all the way he cannot move his signal lever. It is true that in some forms of interlocking one lever is made to do double duty and actuate both the switch and lock, but the signal lever is then interlocked with the switch itself, *not merely with the switch lever*, and the signal cannot be displayed at clear unless the switch is in a safe position. The mechanism accomplishing all this is extremely ingenious, but time and space forbid a more lengthy and technical description.

The utility of this arrangement may readily be seen and its advantages as a safeguard against accident are obvious to any one giving the matter a few minutes' consideration. It is not essential for an operator to be always in attendance at every interlocking machine, although that would, of course, be a preventive against malicious or mischievous interference, but with outlying switches not often used it is quite feasible to put the machine in a cabin and have the switch set normally for the important route, and the signals governing this route normally displayed at "proceed," or "cleared," as it is called. Trains wishing to take any other route controlled by this machine must stop while one of the trainmen goes to the cabin and acts temporarily as leverman, setting the signals for the important route at "stop."

before he can set the switches for the route his train is to take. There is no danger in this, the only objection being that after setting the switches and signals for his train he may go off and leave that route "set up," as it is called, and the signals for the important route at "stop." This is ingeniously guarded against by arranging the machine so that the door of the cabin is locked until all the levers have been restored to the normal position. Failure to do this keeps the trainman a prisoner for an indefinite length of time.

BLOCK OPERATORS SHOULD CONTROL SWITCHES.

It is a comparatively simple matter of engineering to gather most of the main-track switches in the vicinity of stations within a comparatively small radius and interlock them properly, thus insuring mechanical safety for the passage of trains over them, and also securing the additional advantage of putting them entirely under the control of one man, so as to centralize the responsibility for their proper manipulation. It would be hard to overestimate the advantages to be gained by this fact alone. The block-signaling arrangement in most general use is the so-called telegraph block. By this arrangement telegraph operators are stationed at intervals along the railroads to act as block operators. The regular stations are in all cases used as block stations, and the station operators perform the duties of block operators. Under the block rules these men must of necessity be notified of the approach of every train from either direction. By also giving them control of all the switches in their vicinity they are in a better position than any one else to operate these switches with safety. This removes the danger already alluded to, of reckless or inexperienced trainmen running engines or cars in their charge on the main track in the very face of approaching high-speed trains. Where automatic block signals are in use, which is the case to a limited extent, the standing of engines or cars on the main track or the opening of main track switches displays the block signal at danger, thereby warning approaching trains in time to prevent collisions. Usually, also, these trains give notice of their approach by displaying indicators or ringing bells at the switches and in the operator's room.

Should this reach the eye of any operating railroad officer he will probably say, "Yes,

this is all right for the switches in the neighborhood of stations, but how about the switches at the far ends of the long-passing tracks which we must necessarily provide at stations so that trains may pass each other? These switches must, perforce, be 3000 or 4000 feet away from the station." The reply to this is to equip them with interlocking machines that have no regular attendants, as described in a preceding page, so that trainmen may let their trains out on the main track when ready to proceed,—the only movement ever made through these switches. It is an easy matter to put these switches under the control of the operator at the station by electrically locking them to his signals. Telephone communication or electric advance signals may be used by the operator at the station to notify trains waiting on these passing tracks when they may proceed. All this is simple. Could it be done for nothing every railroad in this country would have been so equipped long ago, and no human creature can say what the saving in human life and in property would have been.

The only excuse which can be offered for its not having been done in this country years ago as in England is that the expense would be prohibitive. Is this so? Let us see.

THE EXPENSE NOT PROHIBITIVE.

A complete arrangement of tracks at a station with the minimum number of main-track switches can be properly interlocked and the far-away switches put absolutely under the control of the central block operator for approximately \$5000. Allowing one station for every six miles of track in the United States, a very liberal allowance, would make the cost about \$830 a mile. Stringing a separate block wire, which should be done where one is not already in place, even at the present high price of copper, would cost about \$75 per mile. This would make the total cost in rough figures about \$900 per mile. Roughly speaking, there are about 215,000 miles of railroad in the country to be so equipped. This would make the total necessary expenditure \$193,500,000. Quite a tidy sum, but one that sinks into insignificance when compared with the total capitalization of the railroads in this country, which is given in the 1904 report of the Interstate Commerce Commission (the latest available figures) as \$13,213,134,679. It is not likely that the interlocking of all main-track switches as outlined

would add one cent to the operating expenses of the railroad, excepting a 5 per cent. charge for renewals. With money seeking investment at 4 per cent., and as above stated 5 per cent. allowed for renewals, this expenditure would represent an annual outlay by the railroads of \$17,415,000. Would this bankrupt them? Their gross earnings in 1904 were over \$2,000,000,000, and have increased since then. In other words, about eight-tenths of 1 per cent. of their gross earnings would defray this expense even if it were a clear charge to them without any credit.

MONEY SAVINGS THAT WOULD RESULT.

There would, however, be a very large credit made up of the direct saving in damages for personal injuries and repairs to track and equipment made necessary by derailments and collisions. Just what the amount of personal damages paid annually by our railroads in one form or another is, no one except possibly the railroad officers themselves knows. And the cost of repairing track and equipment and wrecking expenses is unknown even to them. Such accidents as that at Mentor, Ohio, and the two recently on the Baltimore & Ohio certainly cost the railroads enormous sums.

Turning again to the Interstate Commerce Report we find that, as before stated, in 1906 180 passengers and 313 employees were killed, and that 6661 passengers and 6025 employees were injured by derailments and collisions.

Were it not for the touch of high finance, flimflam, or whatever we please to call it by which a number of our largest railroad companies have organized insurance departments to collect money from their employees' wages to pay the death losses of those of their brethren unfortunate enough to get killed, and then require the heirs in accepting this money to release the railroad company from further damages, it is safe to assume that they would have been compelled to pay the customary \$5000 for each life,—a sum, by the way, so ridiculously inadequate as to be mentioned only with bated breath. But assuming that the lives of half of the employees killed were paid for out of the pockets of their fellow employees, and that the railroad paid the \$5000 each for the other half and for all of the passengers, we would have an item of \$1,682,000 for deaths. With respect to the injured the problem is more difficult. There is no limit to the amount of

damages a jury can assess for a personal injury, and one is much more likely to act handsomely toward a person who can speak for himself and show his injuries in court than toward a "poor blind corpse who doesn't know the boys are sorry for him." Let us suppose that the injured employees cost \$500 each in damages, medicine, and hospital attendance, and the travelers \$2000 each. These figures are conservative and yet amount to a further sum of \$16,334,500, the aggregate being \$18,016,500. Now if the very conservative figure of 75 per cent. of this would have been saved by block signals and interlocking, we should have a direct saving to the railroads of, in round numbers, \$13,500,000 annually.

Figures on which to base a calculation of the amount to be saved in damage to track, equipment, and freight are unobtainable, but would certainly amount to a very large sum, as it is to be borne in mind that not every wreck by any means is accompanied with casualties. A very insignificant wreck will easily cost \$1000 in damage and wrecking expenses. Some estimates made by the writer more than a year ago lead him to believe that this expense would approximate \$10,000,000 annually, but there are no authentic statistics from which this figure can be checked. There is another item of untold value to the railroads themselves,—viz., the saving of delays to traffic, with consequent congestion and damages for losses to live stock and perishable freight caused by such delays.

This is indeterminate, of course, but none the less a valuable item. From these figures, which are conservative, there is little doubt that the railroads would be actual gainers by installing the safety appliances referred to in this paper, even at the present rate of casualties. But even if they were not, is it too much for the people of the United States to ask in the face of recent appalling accidents and the steadily increasing roll of killed and wounded that our railroads afford us the same protection as is given in every other civilized country?

There is another reason also why it is particularly desirable at this time that some action should be taken to make the possibility of accidents more remote.

As is well known, the ownership and control of our railroads are fast falling into a very few hands, and the men owning and controlling them are, as a rule, capitalists and financiers,—not practical railroad officers with a thorough knowledge of the minutiae

of the business in all its details, and not in sympathetic touch with the *personnel* of the properties they control. They are not to their men as one who

"Knows their ways of thinking
And just what's in their mind;
Who knows when they are coming on
And when they've fell behind."

The control of such immense properties has been acquired by the consolidation of smaller ones. What were a few years ago well-known and distinct railroad companies have to-day completely lost their identity. This has had a very deleterious effect on the *morale* or *esprit de corps* of the rank and file of the employees. Men who used to take as it were a personal interest in the welfare of the companies employing them are at present perfectly indifferent. There is so wide a breach between them and their actual employers that they do not feel at all in touch with each other. The old days when two-thirds of the employees were personally known to the president or general manager have gone glimmering, and the employee of to-day feels that he is simply a screw in the huge machine to be replaced and thrown away as soon as worn out. This feeling is unfortunately general and growing and cannot but affect the efficiency of the service these men render. It would certainly appear, therefore, a wise precaution to install

these safety appliances without further delay.

If it is to be done at all, however, some master hand must take the helm. Even if the railroads were a unit in recognizing the necessity for some such action, and undoubtedly many prominent railroad men would favor it, they would never be able to come to an agreement among themselves. Although railroad men had recognized the necessity for safety couplers many years before Congress compelled their application, it took congressional action to make the use of safety couplers an established fact.

And so it will be with block signals and interlocking until Congress puts the power in the hands of either a special commission or of the present Interstate Commerce Commission. The present body has shown itself conscientious and conservative, and is now asking Congress for the increased authority which will be necessary before it can compel the railroads to take active steps to the desired end.

As it is, railroad travel and employment in the active branches of the railroad service are hazardous undertakings at the best. When we consider the dangers from storm and floods and other unavoidable causes which every traveler by rail must face, is it too much to ask that we be given every safeguard which human skill and ingenuity can devise?

II.—RAILWAY ACCIDENTS AND RAILWAY PERSONNEL.

BY WYATT W. RANDALL.

IT is now many a long year since Mark Twain wrote, "They do not have railroad accidents in France, because when they do, somebody's got to hang for it,"—or words to that effect. Yet the contrast drawn by the author of "Innocents Abroad," between the methods in vogue in western Europe and those obtaining in his native land, all allowance for exaggeration being made, remains essentially fair. The loss of life on our railroads is appalling. With all our boasted cleverness to help us, with all our determination to "beat the earth," we must sadly admit that the problem of the safe transportation of human freight is less satisfactorily solved on this side the Atlantic than on the other. The crux of the matter is this: We have sought the traveler's comfort and convenience more than his ulti-

mate safety. We have supplied him with a barber-shop, a library, and a stenographer on the train, but we have not eliminated grade-crossings, nor wholly prevented the wandering of cattle on the tracks. We have regarded the conveyance of passengers too frequently as merely a part of the great problem of transportation, to which this rule is applicable: "Get your trainload to its destination with as little delay as possible, for delay means loss. An occasional wreck is not so disastrous to business as constant failure to deliver on time." The writer remembers well the serene remark of an old lady with whom he was making his way by a morning express to Charing Cross Station,—the train already an hour behind time, although the distance was short,—"The South Eastern is always behind time, but we feel that we are

very safe!" To an American, "always behind time," even under normal conditions of travel, would appear to be the knell of a railroad's popularity; but to our English cousins it is by no means so: a sense of security is of more value than the assurance of punctuality at the risk of even slight danger.

Unquestionably American railways have catered to the taste of our people. Nothing is more satisfactory to us than to be able to leave at the last possible minute and to arrive precisely at the time set for an engagement; and nothing is more annoying than to meet with an unforeseen (but easily avoidable) delay which makes havoc of our carefully laid plans. The popularity with us of the fast automobile is probably at least partly due to its capacity to set at naught the railway's threat of delay. Where, on the oceans of the world, do we find the twenty-odd-knot ship except where the bulk of the passengers are Americans?

AMERICAN RAILROAD DEFICIENCIES.

So much for an underlying cause; wherein lie the specific troubles with American passenger transportation? These are many and we shall here enumerate a few:

1. Enormous growth of traffic, especially of freight, without compensating increase in rolling stock and in sidings and terminal capacity. This naturally results in congestion of main lines and terminals and consequent delay, and delay means confusion of schedule, with increased risk of accident. That most of our railways are struggling to cope with this deficiency is undoubtedly true, and enormous sums are being spent to relieve the situation, but, so far as the outsider can discover, the end is yet far off.

2. Lack of modern safety appliances having to do with the signaling, switching, and halting of moving trains. Here the policy of economy and higher dividends must be held responsible for much present trouble. The public demand for the employment of air-brakes on freight cars has met with such general resistance by the railways that even to-day only a fraction of the trains moving over our trunk lines are completely equipped. All along the route the observing traveler may see switches *not* controlled from the signal tower, and without lights, which place the lives of the whole trainloads of passengers at the mercy of any evil-disposed person who can break or pick a lock. Finally, how often does one sit in a halted train, wondering whether that brakeman sent back to signal

a following express had made up his mind that fifty yards was far enough to stumble along in the darkness or rain, and wish that the day of automatic block signals had dawned for all the world!

3. Freedom to use the railroad as a highway for pedestrians. Whereas it is unquestionably true that those who use the tracks as a promenade do so at a greater risk to themselves than to those who travel by train, nevertheless, the fact that trespassers are no uncommon thing, especially within town or village limits, makes it difficult to hold a company responsible for a disordered condition of the permanent way. Fences to prevent passengers from crossing, or others from using, the tracks, are more noteworthy by their absence than by their presence.

4. Numerous grade-crossings of highways. Again economy dictates a policy of putting off the evil day when large expenditure must be faced in order that trains and family carriages shall cease their efforts to use the same spot of roadbed at the same time.

A COSTLY KIND OF "ECONOMY."

Each of the matters treated under the headings above has to do with something, the lack of which is due to an effort at economy. Whether such economy is on the whole wise must be decided by those better able than the present writer to judge. More tracks, more platforms, more costly rolling stock, more blockhouses, more employees, more signal lamps, more fencing, more bridges,—all involve more expenditure. That these improvements will come in time and because of simple business reasons is not to be doubted: They will be found to *pay*. But, whereas this is certainly true in so far as they affect the handling of freight, is it not also true that it is only "business reasons" that will compel many of our railways to undertake similar improvements for the sake of their passenger traffic? Must we wait for compulsion by the state? In other words, is it because European governments are stricter than ours in compelling the adoption of safeguards for passengers that they secure better results, or is it that the European railway company director possesses a higher notion of his responsibility for the safety of passengers,—apart from purely business considerations—than his American contemporary?

FAULTS OF ORGANIZATION AND DISCIPLINE.

Turning now to other preventable faults, involving for their removal little, if any, in-

crease of expenditure by the railroad company, we find some of these to be:

5. Failure to hold employees to a standard of performance which the public has a right to expect maintained.

6. Overworking of employees in positions demanding constant presence of mind and good judgment; and

7. Employment of unsuitable agents, meaning by this men physically unfit for the duties they are called upon to perform.

Any intelligent reader of the daily papers during the past few months can recall instances in plenty serving to illustrate each of these charges.

Mark Twain's remark that "somebody will have to hang for it" is but a fair suggestion of the frame of mind which ought to characterize railroad officials in their dealings with faithless subordinates, and the powers that be in their relations with such officials. Can it be maintained that our railways as a rule secure a discipline which can compare with that of any well-managed steamship line? And if not, why not? Is there a railroad company in the United States which can boast that, like a famous old steamship line, it has, in a long career, never lost the life of a passenger? It is most gratifying to note how, in the matter of immediate response to signals, certain of our greater systems claim to have secured, by imposition of heavy penalties in cases of neglect, apparently invariable obedience on the part of locomotive engineers. Would that such discipline were universal! Too often is it that "taking chances" appears to the engineer of a belated train as the most attractive course of action, simply because he knows how frequently such action is unnoted or is winked at by his superiors. The day may come when to pass a danger signal will only mean cutting off power from his locomotive; but that day is not yet. Without fault on the part of the signalman, a train may be carried to destruction by an insubordinate engineer. On the other hand, the signalman has not the same menace of personal danger which may result from a mistake, that hangs over the train crew. Even if the mistake be his, he does not suffer the immediate penalty, and to prove that he has given a wrong signal is by no means easy. Investigation of the causes underlying a recent fatal collision led a railroad official to claim that every rule applying to his duties in the premises had been broken by his sub-

ordinate,—a signalman,—on that occasion! How comes it that a signalman *dare* break every rule laid down for his guidance by his superiors?

Little need be said here about the overworking of employees. The need of a reasonable schedule of hours for these having difficult or dangerous work to do is too manifest to require any argument. Nor are the American railways special offenders in this direction. The matter has been before Congress for action, and legislation of a strict character is likely in the near future. There is need: In the investigation referred to above it was admitted that one of the engineers involved had had only four hours' rest out of the forty-eight immediately preceding the collision, and that the railway officials had connived at such practices!

DANGERS FROM DEFECTIVE EYESIGHT.

Finally, let us consider the case of unsuitable employees, or those likely to become so. Under this heading attention will be given only to the case of those with defective eyesight.

It is probably true that nearly all who enter the employ of our railroads and who become engineers or signalmen are examined with respect to their eyesight. Nevertheless, these examinations, it must be remembered, are usually made only on entry into the service, and that means at the age when the sight is at its best. Also, they are, frequently, at least, not carried out by experts, and are of a character that makes them of comparatively slight value. A recent writer in a French journal, treating this matter from the point of view of an oculist, demands a thorough examination of all railway employees who have to do with the giving or receiving of signals, not only on entrance into the service, but at regular intervals of not over three years thereafter. The tests he would prescribe correspond fairly closely with service conditions: No matching of colored worsteds in a well-lighted room, no scrutiny of carefully drawn letters where ample time is allowed to arrive at a correct conclusion; but snap-shots at mimic signals, where the time allowed is very short and where various conditions interfere with a clear view. It is now possible to conduct such tests in a room and yet closely simulate the effects of distance and of varying atmospheric conditions. Our author gives it as his opinion* that no one should be employed

* *Cosmos*, November 24, 1906.

in work having to do with signals whose eyesight at twenty to twenty-five years of age is not normal, and that no one should be promoted who has not at least two-thirds of normal acuteness of vision. It would be far wiser, in his estimation, to pension a faithful employee who has won a claim to promotion but whose eyesight has distinctly lost in acuteness, than to promote him to a place of greater responsibility thus handicapped. As the eyes' power of accommodation decreases with the passage of years, the wearing of suitable glasses should be required of all employees who, in the view of a competent oculist, stand in need of them, and record should be kept of the oculist's diagnoses. It has been found, let it be noted in

passing, in the case of employees of the London & Southwestern Railway, that the tests made by expert oculists were actually conducted at less expense to the company than those carried out by others.

To sum up: Vast good could be done in the way of increasing safety in the operation of our railroads, were the companies determined to secure only thoroughly competent agents and, by a policy of uniform discipline, to hold them to strict accountability. That such a course would do more than abate some of the evils we have noted, it would be absurd to claim, but in the bulk it would tend to instill much greater confidence and real comfort into the soul of the thoughtful traveler.

III.—PSYCHOLOGY OF THE RAILROAD ACCIDENT.

BY CHARLES R. KEYES.

JUDGED by their fruits, present-day operative methods among our railways are very far from being what they should be. Accidents have become so frequent of late that they have begun to excite in the public mind widespread apprehension, and to demand drastic measures for their prevention. While, with the railways, no pains are spared to move the greatest amount of traffic possible, attention to safety in train operation has not kept pace with the solicitude shown in other directions.

That safety in railway travel now almost seems, in the public estimation, to have become a secondary consideration, is due to a number of circumstances commonly overlooked. Railway officials themselves clearly have failed to grasp the spirit of the situation. As a chain is no stronger than its weakest link, so present systems of running trains break down at their weakest points. Strange as it may seem, the weakest link in railway operating is elaborated out of such stuff as dreams are made of. In both there are at frequent intervals momentary subconscious states of the individual mind. As the outcome of the more familiar one the most grotesque mental picture is made real and rational; the outcome of the other and less understood is mishap, too often horrible and heartrending. Operating methods in the railway must be, therefore, fundamentally changed before it can be expected that danger of disaster will be materially lessened.

Responsibility for nine out of ten of the frightful railway wrecks of the past few years can be definitely fixed; and the results admit of little debate. It lies not altogether with the man at the throttle, the overworked trainman, or the lonely station telegrapher. It rests directly at the doors of the higher officials, from president down to division superintendent. With legal recognition of this fact capital punishment, the extreme penalty for murder, assassination, and massacre, may be some day soon meted out to these men in high position the same as to any disciple of Cain.

WHO IS RESPONSIBLE?

With every railway disaster it is a repetition of the same old story. Disobedience of running orders, failure to heed signals, delinquency of some poor trainman,—these are the reasons for which the men in the ranks are found guilty, dismissed from the service, blacklisted forever, that high officials may be retained in power. It would be far more reasonable to condemn a trainman because of the grandfather he had. The very fact is the greatest injustice that stains our industrial fabric to-day,—injustice to the unfortunate trainman who is the victim of what he cannot help, injustice to the high official because he escapes criminal punishment, injustice to the innocent traveler who is constantly in danger of having his life snuffed out at any moment.

It is folly to punish for what nature has decreed. But is there not some relief? May not something be done to prevent railway massacre? We think there may. The cause of most accidents on railways lies not where the blame is commonly put. It rests beyond,—in the fallibility of the human mind. Its nature is psychologic, and must be so treated.

Somewhat appalling are the recent statistics of death and injury from railway accident. Last year, according to the statements of the Interstate Commerce Commission, there were in the United States 4000 persons killed and 55,000 injured in train disasters. There were over 6000 collisions, nearly the same number of derailments, and a property loss of more than \$10,000,000. In this annual record there is much food for reflection.

WRECKS NOT USUALLY CHARGEABLE TO DEFECTIVE EQUIPMENT.

The general public is ill-prepared to institute careful inquiry into the specific causes of railway wrecks. Without questioning the real reasons of disasters, the managements are condemned for reckless operating, undue parsimony in expenditures to insure safety, and pitting human lives against dividends. Railway officials are to be blamed and are not to be blamed for all of these things. The main burden of the wreck must surely be laid at their doors, but not for the reasons public opinion ascribes, nor because the officials are yet morally responsible. The disease has never received careful scientific diagnosis. When it has, the remedy certainly will be found to be simple and effective.

Official railway inquiry into the causes of accidents finds that the majority of mishaps are due to the alleged carelessness and misdeeds of employees. The latter are summarily dismissed, and new men are put in their places. By this "weeding-out" process of the "careless" the survival of the fittest is thought to be promoted. Nothing is farther from the truth. The shortcomings of one offending crew are soon repeated by the next. The same old trouble remains. Instead of being eradicated, it breaks out anew at the very first opportunity, as experience and statistics conclusively show.

Printed rules for the operating of trains appear explicit enough, concise, and to cover every possible emergency. They admit of little perfecting. Elaborate mechanical devices and signals are provided. Yet, in spite of all precautions and all safeguards, the train crew continues to blunder as badly as

ever. Wrecks are as frequent on the double-tracked road protected by "perfect" block systems as on the single-line "Granger" road.

In its mechanical perfection the modern railway is about as good as it is possible to make it, and so far as avoiding accident little improvement in this respect can be expected. Serious disasters from this source are comparatively infrequent. What, then, are the chances in ordinary train operation for mishaps due to alleged shortcomings of employees? The answer comes from one of the leading railways of the country. Recently, as tests for emergencies, false signals were displayed at various places along the line, but finally covered the entire road. Only 60 per cent. of these signals were properly heeded. Surely in the other 40 per cent., to which no attention was paid, there must have been vast opportunity for disaster.

THE FALLIBLE HUMAN ELEMENT.

The wonder is not that accidents are so frequent, but that they are not more common than they really are. During the past decade ample occasion has been given to make personal inquiry into the actual causes of a large number of railway wrecks. The best answer once came from a newly dismissed flagman. That some one had blundered was manifest. He said: "For some reason or other the rules did not fit. No one man caused it. It is the meeting of three persons' mistakes at once that produces a wreck." Three grave and simultaneous infringements of the rules to make a collision! Three serious blunders necessary to snuff out human lives in tens and hundreds! Some such blunders may sometimes be ascribed to carelessness, but the greater number are clearly due to mental defect, or, rather, momentary lapses in the activity of the human brain. This is a condition met with in some form or other in every person every day. An offending trainman may not always be physically or mentally responsible for the loss of life and property that has occurred through his alleged remissness. In most cases he is probably not. Beyond the broken rule must we look for the real cause of error and its terrible consequences. Until we do this, until we find a certain remedy, the liability of accident remains potentially as great as ever.

The railways are amply protected against mechanical defects of system and equipment. The great neglect is in not making any provision whatever against what is tenfold more

important, and the real cause of most catastrophes,—the defects of the human make-up. The infirmities of the human mind are, in railroading, nearly all reducible to two main categories: To the one belong all those shortcomings due to a lack of perfect memory; to the other all those arising from an innate mental tendency to do certain classes of things the reverse of the natural order. The mental infirmities of both of these classes are in themselves incurable; but they all may be fully and easily corrected by mechanical devices so that the actual results are the same as if the defects themselves were perfectly curable. When a practical scheme of operating railways shall have been devised which has for its foundation the full consideration of the psychologic phenomena referred to, the danger of accident on the steel highway will be largely a thing of the past.

Perfect memory is a human faculty unknown. In ordinary, everyday life, its want is not very noticeable, since the consequences are measureable only qualitatively, and are therefore not very important. In such an industry as railroading its lack is capable of quantitative expression and the consequences are grave. An instance or two exemplifies the principle:

TWO ILLUSTRATIVE INSTANCES.

At the station of Jefferson there is a long siding; from the lower end of it the Bagnell Branch leaves it, and by a sharp curve swings around a large mill. The siding is usually left full of cars. Some of these are taken every morning by the local freight which comes up the main line. When opposite the siding the engine cuts loose from the rest of the train, backs in at the upper end of the siding and draws out the needed cars onto the main line, connects with the main train, and goes on. It so happened one time that all of the cars on the full siding were to be picked up by the local. This very morning it also happened that the local train came up light, with only the caboose attached. One of the brakemen set the switches and a flying switch was made, the engine running up to the upper end of the siding, where it backed down to the long string of cars, and proceeded to pull the train out on the main line. Now, the flying switch was made with considerably more force than was intended, and in order to prevent the caboose crashing into the string of cars on the siding, the brakeman had to leave his post at the Branch road switch and mount the flying car to set

the brakes. In his haste the Branch switch was forgotten, and was left open. A few hours later the Branch train, an hour late, came hurrying in, and instead of going out on the siding as usual, it went off into the ditch.

A few weeks later, on another road some repairs were being made on the south track of a double line, and for a distance of a mile all trains during part of the night were flagged and sent over the north tracks. About ten o'clock the farther switch was set for the north-track trains, but a south-track express chanced to come along first, and the engineer, not knowing at which of several points he should get back on his south track again, passed the proper place and sped away along the north track for some distance before he began to realize that he had gone too far. Before he could slow down appreciably the north-track limited rounded a sharp, curve and the two trains came together with terrific force. A score of lives were lost.

HOW TO GUARD AGAINST DISASTER.

Examples of this kind might be infinitely multiplied. The two simple cases suffice to illustrate in man a mental trait that may be observed by any one many times each day. If we but knew it every one of us exhibits it constantly. It is that infirmity of the mind which often prevents us from doing perfectly the first time things we have not done before. In everyday life we think little or nothing of these little failures; they seldom result in any particular harm. In railroading, where the smallest mistake may lead to great catastrophes, the same little mistakes give measurable results. So long as matters run smoothly in the accustomed way, day after day, there is small danger of mishap. But just so soon as something unusual comes up, an uncommon order is given, or an emergency arises, the danger of things going wrong infinitely increases. At these times exceptional cautionary measures must be taken to counterbalance the increased risk of mishap.

To "discipline" an offender by dismissal, as is usually the case, does not remove the cause. If anything, it rather aggravates it, by permitting untried men to take the place of the more experienced ones. The liability of mishap is as great as before. To overcome this incurable failing of the mental make-up we must devise some system that renders its shortcomings harmless. In a crude way this has been done in many cases in factories. The application and extension of the same principles to railroad operation must be ac-

complished before we can expect materially to diminish the frequency and force of accidents. When any order out of the regular scheme is given, provision should be made so that the attention of more than one person should be involved when it is executed. Moreover, it should be made an impossibility for one man's obliviousness to occasion disaster.

A second potent cause of railroad wrecks is primarily due to operative methods that are antiquated. The glaring defect is that things are done backward; the several steps of action are a reversal of the natural and logical sequence. In the infancy of railroading, when conditions were simple, it made little difference. As the entire fabric grew rapidly the method first adopted finally broke down from overweight. It is perfectly fruitless to try to make the old way do. We do many things "backward," but most of us do not notice it, because either it is of small consequence, or we know of no other way. With a vast and exacting industry, as railroading is to-day, the case is different, and adequate and logical method is of prime import.

Instead of the existing methods of operating trains, it is necessary to have something entirely new, some system in which the un-

derlying principles are just the reverse of those now in force. At the present time when anything goes wrong, when one train gets into the same block with the one ahead, when orders overlap, when signals fail, or when an employee makes a mistake, there is immediately potential accident. Hundreds of mistakes and mishaps occur on the railways every day, although the public hears nothing of them. It is only when dire disaster takes place, in which lives are lost, that a thrill of horror awakens us to the gravity of the situation. Of course, somebody is "disciplined," but this in no way lessens the danger or removes the cause. The case is identical with that of the football; no matter what happens to it or how fierce the contests over it have been, it remains as good an object for scrimmage as before.

When anything goes wrong in the operation of railway trains the very fact itself should make it impossible for the trains affected to proceed. They should be brought to a standstill instantly. There should be no possible means, for example, by which two trains could enter the same block.

One thing is certain: Mistakes of any kind whatsoever, instead of inviting catastrophe, should themselves make accident absolutely impossible.



Photograph by Pierre Pullis, N.Y.

PNEUMATIC TRACK STOP INSTALLED ON THE NEW YORK SUBWAY.
(The stop trigger is shown in an upright position outside the rail.)

THE IMMIGRATION LAW OF 1907.

BY WILLIAM S. ROSSITER.

FEDERAL legislation upon the subject of immigration extends over a period of but a quarter of a century. The act of 1819 regulated the "carriage of passengers" (ocean passengers at that time for the most part were immigrants), but for nearly a century after the adoption of the Constitution Congress was content to permit the seaboard States to control immigration by local legislation. The principal exception to this policy was the temporary act of 1864 encouraging immigration because of the scarcity of labor resulting from the Civil War. Immigration acts were also passed in 1862, 1869, 1873, and 1875; these were not general laws, but dealt specifically with coolie immigration and contract labor.

The act of August 3, 1882, was the first general immigration law, repeated decisions of the Supreme Court having made it clear that immigration was a subject for federal rather than State legislation. This act excluded certain undesirable persons, provided for a small head-tax, and for co-operation of federal officials with State immigration boards.

In 1891 this law was superseded by a new act which codified the existing laws, definitely established federal supervision over immigration, strengthened the clauses relating to exclusion, and provided for the return of all debarred aliens. Supplementary legislation approved in 1893 and 1894 provided for the appointment of commissioners of immigration at the several ports and the extension of administrative supervision.

During the period of industrial depression which occurred shortly after the passage of the act of 1891 vigorous efforts were made to secure decidedly restrictive legislation by requiring what was known as the "illiteracy test." Such a measure, indeed, was passed by Congress in 1896, but was vetoed by President Cleveland. This veto was soon justified by returning national prosperity, which brought such insistent demands for labor that the principal reasons for the existence of the proposed act of 1896 were, for the time being, removed.

In 1903, however, a third general act was passed, embodying the results of experience gained under earlier legislation. Inspection was made more rigid; the head-tax

was increased to \$2; sixteen specified classes of persons were excluded, and manifests were required of the steamship companies upon which should appear answers to nineteen questions concerning each immigrant.

From 1903 to 1907 the number of arriving immigrants rose to unprecedented totals. The following summary presents by decades the number of immigrants who have come to the United States since 1820, the earliest date for which record was kept.

IMMIGRATION BY DECADES, 1820 TO 1906, INCLUSIVE.

1820	8,385
1821 to 1830	143,439
1831 to 1840	599,125
1841 to 1850	1,713,251
1851 to 1860	2,511,080
1861 to 1870	2,377,279
1871 to 1880	2,812,191
1881 to 1890	5,246,613
1891 to 1900	3,687,564
1901 to 1906	4,933,811
Total	24,032,718

The far-reaching effect of the great population movement of the last three or four years led to a renewal in Congress of the agitation for restrictive legislation. Bills to regulate immigration were introduced in both the Senate and House of Representatives early in the Fifty-ninth Congress. Each body passed its own bill, and, in accordance with Congressional procedure, these conflicting measures were referred to a conference committee composed of Senators and Representatives. In February of the present year the conferees agreed upon a new bill, embodying the best features of the two measures, together with certain additional provisions. This bill was presented to both houses, passed, and was approved by the President February 20, 1907.

Thus, to a peculiar degree the new immigration law represents the maturest judgment of Congress, for disagreement between the two houses resulted in critical and impartial review by a small number of painstaking and able Senators and Representatives, foremost among whom were Senators Dillingham, of Vermont, and Lodge, of Massachusetts, and Representative Bennet, of New York.

The immigration act of 1907 is not a radical or restrictive measure. In the opinion of persons best qualified to judge, the new law is of value principally in codifying laws relating to immigration and in strengthening

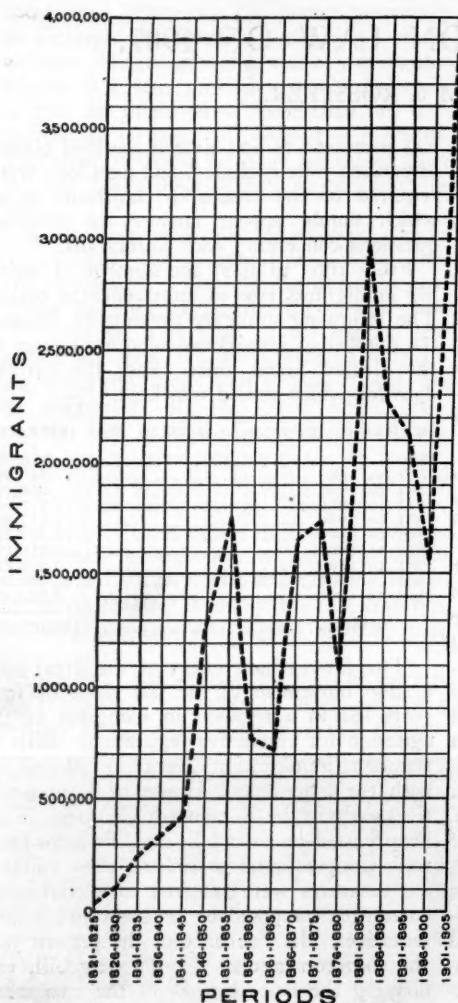


CHART SHOWING THE MOVEMENT OF IMMIGRATION,
1821-1905.

previously existing provisions, with additional legislation which in general tends to strengthen Government supervision and more effectively exclude undesirable immigrants. Some of the more important provisions of the new law are these:

The so-called head-tax upon immigrants has been increased from \$2 to \$4. It is not expected that this tax will restrict immigration, but it will recompense to some degree the federal Government, and thus indirectly the nation, for the expenditure incurred before individual immigrants become self-supporting.

Outlying territories, such as Guam, Porto

Rico, and Hawaii, have been exempted from the head-tax, in order to place no obstacle in the way of attracting immigrants to those localities, but the transfer of such immigrants from Guam, Cuba, Porto Rico, and Hawaii has been carefully safeguarded, in order that the occurrence of industrial depression in the islands may not result in the sudden removal of large numbers of undesirable settlers from outlying territories to continental United States. This is the famous paragraph which may be called the "California compromise," since under it the President possesses authority to exclude Japanese immigrants.

The provisions excluding persons possessing physical infirmities, polygamists, and those who are suspected of immigrating for immoral purposes have been greatly strengthened, and severe penalties have been prescribed, in clear language, for the enforcement of these sections of the law. The new law also is an advance over its predecessor in that it includes the provision relating to contract labor, inadvertently omitted from the act of 1903. This provision is made effective for the first time by providing adequate detective service.

Heretofore the Immigration Bureau has kept a strict and accurate record of the arrival of immigrants, but the increasing tendency on the part of persons of certain nationalities to return to the mother country has not been measured statistically. The final clause of Section 12 in the new act provides means for ascertaining how many aliens leave this country each year. By this important section it will now be possible to ascertain the net increase of population each year resulting from alien arrivals.

The passage money paid by immigrants to the steamship companies has become a large share in their total revenues. As might be expected, the companies have worked this mine vigorously by stimulating migration. The new law places more responsibility upon the steamship companies, makes them liable for bringing in immigrants illegally, and compels them to return rejected aliens free of charge. Under the old law the rejection of an immigrant was a source of greater profit to the steamship companies than his admittance, since the company thus reaped the benefit of double passage money. It is probable that this section will prove to be a very wise and timely provision.

The responsibility of the steamship companies in connection with the subject of contagious diseases is further emphasized by the

new law. Under the earlier statute, steamship companies were compelled to pay a fine of \$100 for bringing to the United States an immigrant afflicted with a loathsome or dangerous contagious disease. This provision in the law of 1903 resulted in turning back many diseased persons at the ports of embarkation, but the law of 1907 extends this provision to include idiots, imbeciles, epileptics and persons afflicted with tuberculosis, provided, of course, that such disease or disability might have been detected at the port of embarkation.

Furthermore, Congress has extended from two years to three years the time within which an alien who becomes a public charge may be deported, and has placed half of the entire cost of removal to the port of deportation upon the person or persons who induced the undesirable immigrant to cross the ocean. If this is not practicable, it is charged to the immigration fund.

Surgeons may be sent to those foreign countries which will permit inspection of emigrants prior to sailing. This will prevent many persons suffering from diseases which would bar them from entering the United States from making a futile voyage. It will also save many others who now contract diseases en route from the danger of infection. This system is now, with the consent of the Italian Government, successfully in use at various ports in Italy.

Weak provisions in the former immigration act relating to the place of entry of aliens and the separation of families have been strengthened, and a bureau has been established to encourage immigrants to go to those sections of the country in which labor is most needed, and thus, if possible, to avoid the congestion resulting from large numbers of newly arrived persons remaining in the populous seaport cities of the East. Rigid

inspection of child immigrants has been provided to prevent the virtual slavery which has heretofore often occurred, and greater space per immigrant on shipboard has been required.

This last provision (which does not take effect until January 1, 1909) will not affect the larger and newer steamers, and will not materially affect the older ones. Out of 175 steamers bringing immigrants last year to the port of New York, more than half would not have violated this law had it been in effect, and the worst case of violation would have been an excess of but sixty-seven immigrants.

Finally, the law provides for the appointment of a commission of nine,—three Senators, three Representatives, and three persons to be named by the President,—who are directed to make a careful and exhaustive study of the whole question of immigration, and to report to Congress at the earliest practicable date, with recommendations for any future legislation which may seem to be necessary.

Those who are best informed emphatically approve of the new law. It is unquestionably a wise, intelligent, humane statute, far more likely to prove a success than if it included more radical provisions, likely to excite opposition. Supplemented by such additional legislation as may be suggested by the report of the commission, the law of 1907 should prove adequate to deal with conditions as they at present exist.

Immigrants are now arriving in the United States in so great numbers that they affect the social, physical, financial, and moral welfare of the nation. The judgment of Congress that no investigation or legislation should be spared in order to deal effectively with this great problem will surely be approved by every thoughtful American.

IS INDUSTRIAL JAPAN LIKELY TO MENACE THE AMERICAN WAGE-EARNER ?

BY HARRIS WEINSTOCK.

RECENTLY the statement went the rounds of the American press that a movement was on foot in Japan to nationalize not only all public utilities, but also all great industrial undertakings in that empire. At once a cry arose that great danger threatened Occidental industries, that the future of the white wage-earner was likely to be imperiled, and that the success of the movement in Japan meant an inevitable lowering of the living of the white wage-worker to the Asiatic standard, carrying with it a consequential setback to modern progress and to higher civilization.

It was pointed out that by placing western labor-saving machinery in the hands of the wage-earners of the Orient, with their low wage scale, and placing behind this combination the great intelligence and far-reaching power of the Japanese Government, Asiatic industrial supremacy must result.

It was held that so long as modern methods were adopted by Japan and retained in private hands, something, but not a great deal, was to be feared. When, however, the machinery and the credit of the Japanese Government, with its high intelligence, its progressive and aggressive spirit, and its thoroughness of methods, as demonstrated in the recent war with Russia, is applied industrially, then there will be everything to fear, making the industrial future of the white man far from reassuring.

Some months ago the writer was invited to deliver an address to the students of the College of Commerce of the University of California, and was surprised to note the many Japanese students in that body, learning further that they were among the most earnest and industrious workers. Japanese commercial and industrial students are now to be found scattered in many American and doubtless in English colleges as well. As a rule, these come from the better Japanese families, and many are sent abroad at government expense. All this means that when these students return to Japan they will tend to revolutionize the spirit and the practices of Japanese trade and industry. They will introduce Occidental standards of trade,

and in time the commercial and industrial ethics of Japan will equal, if not become better than those of Occidental lands.

JAPANESE COMMERCIAL PROGRESS.

Hence, those who fear Japanese commercial and industrial competition, but who lull themselves into a sleep of fancied security because of the lack of character on the part of the Japanese merchant, are destined to keen disappointment. The evolution in his character is likely to keep pace with his evolution in war and in politics. Surely, from a moral point of view, the Japanese did not suffer in the late war in contrast with his white Russian opponent. His conduct and his treatment of the enemy, of non-combatants, of his prisoners, and of the neutrals through whose territory he passed were in accord with the highest standard of the highest-minded nations.

The question, then, presents itself, assuming that the government of Japan will absorb its great industrial enterprises, assuming that its buyers and sellers and producers will adopt the western standard of ethics in all commercial relations, how serious a menace is all this likely to prove to the white wage-earner?

Here are some of the things she has already done and some of the things she hopes to do. It is a fine record, according to Mr. Raymond F. Crist, special agent of the Department of Commerce and Labor. In his report to Congress Mr. Crist says:

The evident aim of the government is to place Japanese manufactures on an independent footing. That this object has long been entertained is shown by the persistent efforts made during the reign of the present Emperor to develop the manufactures which now flourish throughout the empire. The manufacture of almost every commodity now made in Japan was begun under government supervision and expense. Goods that were essential to the welfare of the natives in 1890 and were among its leading imports are no longer purchased abroad, but instead are manufactured in such quantities that the surplus is exported to other parts of the world, and in many instances to the countries from which they were previously purchased. Thus, instead of occupying the position of a buyer of her necessities from other countries,

Japan has entered the ranks as a competitor for a share in the world's markets.

Model factories and plants were installed by the government in many industrial branches, such as for the manufacture of cottons, silks, and woollens, cement-making, shipbuilding, various ironworking plants, glass, brick, match, and paper factories.

In 1890 the value of exports of manufactured commodities was \$19,382,000; in 1900 this amount had increased to \$28,000,000; in 1904 this had still further increased to \$120,000,000.

In addition to the establishment of model factories, the government purchased abroad complete equipment for spinning and weaving mills and turned it over to individuals desiring to enter upon those lines of manufacture, with the privilege of using the machinery and paying for it on a long-time and small-installment basis; on the other hand, to those who were desirous of initiating a new system of manufacture but were deficient in capital, the government loaned necessary funds; others were granted financial assistance by the state for terms sufficiently long to place them on a sound financial and industrial basis. In many instances within ten years the factories had been turned over to individual enterprise and state aid was no longer required. Great enlargements of cotton-spinning and weaving mills are projected for the near future in view of the past ready market found for their outputs in Japan, China, and Korea, and the expectations which the Japanese may very properly have of larger sales in the fields of Manchuria and Korea.

An analysis of trade statistics for the last two years is significant: In 1904 Japan sold to Tientsin, China, gray sheeting amounting to \$184,000, and for 1905 the sales amounted to \$500,000. What does this mean?

It is pointed out that with the Japanese Government marine subsidies, with the facilities offered the cotton-goods manufacturer for placing as much of his products as he may desire throughout the Chinese market, Japanese trade and influence in China in the near future are likely to exceed those of any other country. In 1902 Japan imported cotton fabrics amounting to \$1,301,016, while for the year 1904 they fell to \$266,045, the difference being supplied by home production.

HEAVY SHIP SUBSIDIES.

Shipbuilding companies of Japan are building new vessels, repairing old ones, altering captured craft, and in every way preparing to adapt everything they have afloat to the new field of Japanese endeavor. If the half that is told of Japanese intentions is true, then an activity will soon ensue on the Pacific Ocean which will astonish the western world.

On December 31, 1904, Japan owned

1209 steamers of 789,494 tons, and 3523 sailing vessels of 321,024 tons. Nine months later her steamers had increased to 1360, and her sailing vessels to 3598, with a collective increased tonnage of 141,036. In 1896 Japan's foreign trade was \$144,758,617, and in 1905, \$405,028,501.

The establishment of new industries on a large scale is almost of daily occurrence in Japan. One day we read of a great paper mill being started; the next day of a colliery company with a capital of \$7,500,000, and again of a great steel foundry.

The *Anglo-Japanese Gazette* maintains that each year indicates that Japan's future lies in her manufactures. The results of the past two years were attained in the face of almost overwhelming difficulties, nearly a million of able-bodied men being absent on the battlefield, and yet in spite of this, and the fact that the people of Japan had to furnish supplies for the army and navy, they were able to send larger quantities of foods abroad.

OUR TRADE WITH JAPAN.

With the United States Japanese trade has steadily increased. If in 1876, when Japan exported goods amounting to \$22,293,473, and imported from the United States wares amounting to but \$1,702,418, some one could have pictured the industrial conditions of Japan as they are to-day, with her modern mills and foundries, the astonishing number of her factories and workshops, and foretold that in 1905 her exports would amount to \$160,700,000, an increase of over 700 per cent., it would have seemed alarming. Many would have assumed that our imports to Japan would now be practically nil and that she would be invading our own ports in competition with our own products, and yet, despite the growth of the cotton-goods industry in Japan, there has in recent years been an increasing Japanese demand for the products of American looms, as indicated by the following reports: Cotton-goods exports to Japan: 1903, \$28,000; 1904, \$561,800; 1905, \$828,000.

Doubtless the Russo-Japanese War had something to do with the abnormal demand for American cotton fabrics, but, even granting this, the future Japanese demand is likely to be far greater than it was before 1904.

Despite the wonderful industrial growth of Japan, however, there is little to be feared from her as a world-industrial power. With all her growth the net annual value

of her manufactured products is \$150,000,000, equal to about \$3 per capita, against a net annual manufactured product of the United States amounting to \$26,000,000,000, or about \$325 per capita.

It is significant that, in 1876, Japan's exports were \$22,000,000, and her imports from the United States, \$1,700,000,—that is, for every dollar received by her for her exports, she spent 8 cents in this country,—while in 1905 her exports had increased to \$160,000,000, and her imports from this country to \$38,000,000; so that for every dollar received by her in 1905 for her exports she spent 24 cents in this country. Her increasing purchasing power led to her spending twenty-two times as much with us in 1905 as in 1876, and three times as much in proportion to her exports; nor is there much fear that she will be able to displace many American articles of manufacture by her own industries. Years ago a watch factory was established at Osaka to displace foreign importations, but instead of meeting the home demand the importation of watches into Japan has increased from 485,593 yen, in 1892, to 3,066,329 yen, in 1898, the latest available data, and that of clocks from 202,141 yen, in 1892, to 353,398 yen, in 1898.

In the face of this astonishing industrial and commercial growth, it must be plain to the dullest mind that Japan is going to make herself keenly felt in the productive field, just as she has already made herself felt in military and naval fields. It is true that wages in 1903, compared with those of 1887, have increased in Japan 150 per cent., and yet, taking eleven manual occupations, skilled and unskilled, the average daily wage in 1903 did not exceed 23 cents. How, in the face of such facts, it is asked, can occidental countries hope to compete with Japan in the orient or in the world's open markets?

It must be admitted that Japan is destined, at an early day, to dominate at least the Asiatic markets in cotton yarn, in low grade cotton fabrics, and in porcelain ware, in all of which she is rapidly excelling. As time goes on she will exploit her possibilities in other directions, and materially add to the lines in which she will become a world factor.

But despite all this, the white wage-earner in this and in other countries, on the whole, has nothing to fear from Japanese or other oriental competition.

With all of Japan's ambition she is sadly handicapped by the fact that her labor is inefficient and by her lack of raw materials. Though the price of labor in Japan is low, its limited efficiency compared with the efficiency of labor in countries where much higher wages are paid makes it very expensive labor; so that, in many avenues, it is not the cheapest, but among the most costly labor in the world. Men who have made a study of industrial conditions in the island empire say that Japanese labor is often both incompetent and wasteful. The average Japanese workman is not only a rather poor workman, but indifferent to his own incompetence, and destitute of ambition to remedy it, and he has little notion of the value of time. As compared with American skilled workmen, it has been estimated that the ratio of Japanese efficiency in labor is about four to one.

If American industry has any serious future competitor in Asia it is more likely to be China than Japan. China has an immense amount of wealth, her people are "industrious, reliable, law-abiding, good humored, capable and tolerant." Her merchants have the highest integrity, and are among the best and shrewdest in the world. The country itself has almost limitless potentialities for development; so that she has a combination of assets which if properly developed and directed has tremendous possibilities.

American and European labor has little to fear from the growth and development of eastern industry. On the contrary, the more that modern industry can be encouraged in the east the more will the purchasing power and the wants increase, and the standards of the Asiatic rise. The more that these grow the more are the possibilities at hand for the consumption of the white man's increasing surplus of industrial products, and thus will the men of the east be of much advantage to the men of the west.

The present and future need of Asia is undoubtedly not the simple life but more wants. Her aim to follow western methods carries with it consequent greater wants. These greater wants will protect the western wage-earner, and will not only save him from the ill effects of cheap labor competition, but will open out a vast, if not endless and enduring, market for many of the white man's products that, with his superbly skilled labor, he can produce better and cheaper than the Asiatic will be able to produce for many generations.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

TREASURY CONTROL OF THE MONEY MARKET.

LAST year will go down in the annals of financial legislative effort as the most noteworthy in forty years. In that period a spasmodic and fragmentary agitation for currency reform, productive of little, if any, substantial improvement, from time to time was noticeable. The call, however, lacked that indorsement by the banking fraternity which was requisite to make it authoritative or unanimous, and Congress naturally gave little heed to the same. For this continuing inelasticity of our currency,—so embarrassing in crop-moving seasons,—the bankers were more to blame than the Government. The latter insisted on the presentation of a plan for currency reform which would in large measure embody the demands of the great bulk of American bankers. This viewpoint was accepted by the American Bankers' Association last year, and, as a result, a joint committee from that organization and from the New York Chamber of Commerce submitted to Congress last December a plan for currency improvement and relief. The Solons at Washington, forced to the wall, promptly rejected it, and, at the last moment, passed the Aldrich bill, which will afford some elasticity to our currency, but is still far short of the relief needed and prayed for.

In the *Journal of Political Economy* for February Mr. Eugene B. Patton, taking an excerpt from Secretary Shaw's report for last year as a text, discusses at great length the precedents for control of the money market by the United States Treasury or by its Secretary. The article is of primary importance to the banker and capitalist, although the force of its conclusions is lessened somewhat by the passage of the Aldrich bill. Mr. Patton is clearly opposed to any plan that would invest the Secretary of the Treasury with a discretionary authority over Government deposits and withdrawals in national banks, or likewise, over their reserves. "Such a proposition by a Secretary of the Treasury to make himself the dictator of the financial interests of the country," he asserts, "is astonishing." Former Secretary Shaw's statement, in his report,—

If the Secretary of the Treasury were given \$100,000,000 to be deposited with the banks or withdrawn, as he might deem expedient, and if in addition he were clothed with authority over the reserves of the several banks, with power to contract the national bank circulation at pleasure,—

Mr. Patton declared "the logical outcome of the recent practice of the Treasury in coming to the 'relief' of the money market." In 1872, Secretary Boutwell expressed the belief that the Treasury rather than the banking institutions of the country should be privileged to regulate the amount of currency needed in business channels; and, by increasing the amount of United States notes in circulation as a means of relief to the monetary situation, the Treasury actually did exercise this regulative power.

Joining issue with Mr. Shaw as to the wisdom of vesting in a Treasury official "a regulative discretion," this writer resorts to a wealth of historical precedent, beginning with the act of February 25, 1862. The acts of July 11, 1862; February 25, 1862; March 3, 1863; June 30, 1864, and February 4, 1868, under which latter act the greenback currency was stopped by Congress, are among the most important. A resolution adopted by the House of Representatives on December 3, 1872, requesting the Secretary of the Treasury to inform the House of his authority for increasing the issue of legal-tender notes of October, 1871, is cited. To this Secretary Boutwell replied: "The condition of affairs then existing in the country seems to me to have warranted the issue upon grounds of public policy." An investigation by the Senate followed, and the writer devotes considerable space to a discussion of the majority and minority reports of the investigators, the latter favoring and the former disapproving the action of Secretary Boutwell. The matter rested here and no definite action was taken. This inaction, Secretary Boutwell subsequently maintained, was equivalent to a virtual assent to his right to issue the notes in question.

Referring to the situation of 1873, he says: "The efforts of the Treasury to afford relief to the money market were comparatively

futile, if not indeed positively harmless." This, because most of the greenbacks issued went into the savings banks, and had little effect in allaying the panic. Reporting on this later, the Secretary of the Treasury said: "The disturbance of business could not be avoided by any amount of currency which might be added to the circulation." Mr. Patton believes that this concludes the question of Treasury regulation, and refutes Mr.

Shaw's opinion. He contends that, *ex natura*, the Secretary is not conversant with the business and banking needs of the country, and, accordingly, would leave the matter of note issues to the national banks, under a system which, for a most critical quarter-century, has proved successful. The enlarged discretionary power of the Secretary of the Treasury under the Aldrich bill is something Mr. Patton evidently did not anticipate.

STEAMSHIP LINES FROM RUSSIA TO THE UNITED STATES.

IN a series of articles in the semi-official daily *Torgovo-Promyshlenaya Gazetta* (*Commercial and Industrial Gazette*), of St. Petersburg, much valuable information is given concerning passenger traffic between Europe and the United States. Particular attention is paid to the movement of emigrants, and an attempt is made by the writer to prove that direct passenger traffic from Russia should prove profitable. The so-called "Volunteer Fleet" has a number of steamships plying between Libau and New York, and direct communication exists also between Odessa and New York.

The editor of the journal referred to points out, in his comments on the articles in question, that the transportation of Russian emigrants on Russian ships should be continued, since this must be followed by a growing commercial intercourse between Russia and North America. The emigration movement, he claims, is abnormal from the standpoint of Russian business enterprise, while in Germany an enormous and well-regulated passenger traffic has been established, thanks to the Russian emigrants. The Russian steamship lines are annually losing the profits that would accrue from the carrying of hundreds of thousands of passengers.

The initial steps taken by the "Volunteer Fleet" call our attention to the emigration from Russia, and emphasize the necessity of immediate regulation of this movement and its direction into the channels of our enterprises. The editor of the *Gazetta* is opposed to the transportation of Russian passengers from the home ports by foreign vessels, and maintains that such transportation should be left to Russian ships.

In comparing the passenger accommoda-

tions on the Russian steamer *Smolensk* and the Hamburg-American steamer *Blücher*, the writer comes to the conclusion that the steerage passengers of the former are better provided for as regards space, light, and ventilation. It is only the highest-paid cabins of the *Blücher* that are superior in point of comfort. Evidently, therefore, the first-cabin passengers of the *Blücher* receive better accommodations at the expense of the steerage passengers. He admits, however, that the steamers of the Hamburg-American fleet possess certain features, like the wireless telegraph, a daily newspaper, music, dancing, etc., which are not found on the ships of the "Volunteer Fleet." Because of these facts, the author believes the steamers of the "Volunteer Fleet" are not capable of competing with vessels of other lines for cabin passengers. In order to encourage a greater number of cabin passengers to travel on the Russian steamers the author suggests the organization of special tours for American travelers who would be interested to see Russia. Later on, he thinks, other classes of Americans would also patronize the Russian steamers.

The author points out, likewise, that on the second voyage of the *Smolensk* the steamer had 1380 steerage passengers, a regrettable fact, according to him, since the normal number of steerage passengers on this vessel should not exceed 1000. Overcrowding is, in the long run, bound to bring its retribution, and the author would, therefore, discourage it as far as possible. Of the European emigrants to America, Russia furnishes the third largest number, as is evident from the following table:

Year.	Austro-Hungary.	Italy.	Russia.
1903.....	206,011	230,622	136,093
1904.....	177,156	193,296	145,141
1905.....	275,693	221,479	184,897

The author believes that the steamers of the "Volunteer Fleet" could carry, aside from the Russian emigrants, also a portion of those from Austria-Hungary. This is made the more probable from the fact that the Slavs of Austria-Hungary would feel themselves more at home on the Russian steamers. Instead of traveling to Bremen or Hamburg they would just as willingly go by way of Rotterdam in the Russian steamers. It should be remembered that while the Russian Jews, with but few exceptions, emigrate to the United States in order to remain there permanently, the Austro-Hungarian emigrants in very considerable proportion go there for a time only. After accumulating some money they return to their old homes. Hence passengers of this character would add to the profits of the "Volunteer Fleet" by providing return traffic. For instance, on one of the return voyages of the *Blücher*, which counted the author among its passengers, there were 400 Austro-Hungarians among the 520 steerage passengers. Some of these told him that they would have preferred to return on the *Smolensk* had they known of the existence of Russian steamers.

"A little more enterprise," says the author, "more far-sightedness, a better understanding of existing conditions, would allow a vigorous development of Russian steamship enterprise on the northern Atlantic, provided

that the threatened struggle with the existing steamship trust could be avoided."

Another correspondent in the same journal, in discussing the diversion of Austro-Hungarian emigration to Russian steamship lines, calls attention to the fact that these emigrants could just as readily go by way of Libau as by way of Rotterdam, the distance in the one case not being greater than that in the other.

The Russian railroad rates, he further claims, are not higher than those in Germany. There would be many difficulties, however, in carrying foreign travelers to the Russian ports, on account of the inconveniences and annoyances created by the Russian passport system. It would be necessary, also, to erect barracks in Libau for the shelter of the emigrants while they are awaiting the departure of their steamers. It is suggested, therefore, to start a parallel line from Odessa for the benefit especially of the emigrants from Galicia and Hungary. The steamers from Odessa could stop at one of the Italian ports on their way to America and secure additional passengers there.

It might be added here that direct steamship service between Odessa and New York has been tried, but not found profitable.

RAILROADS AND RAILROAD BUILDING IN AFRICA.

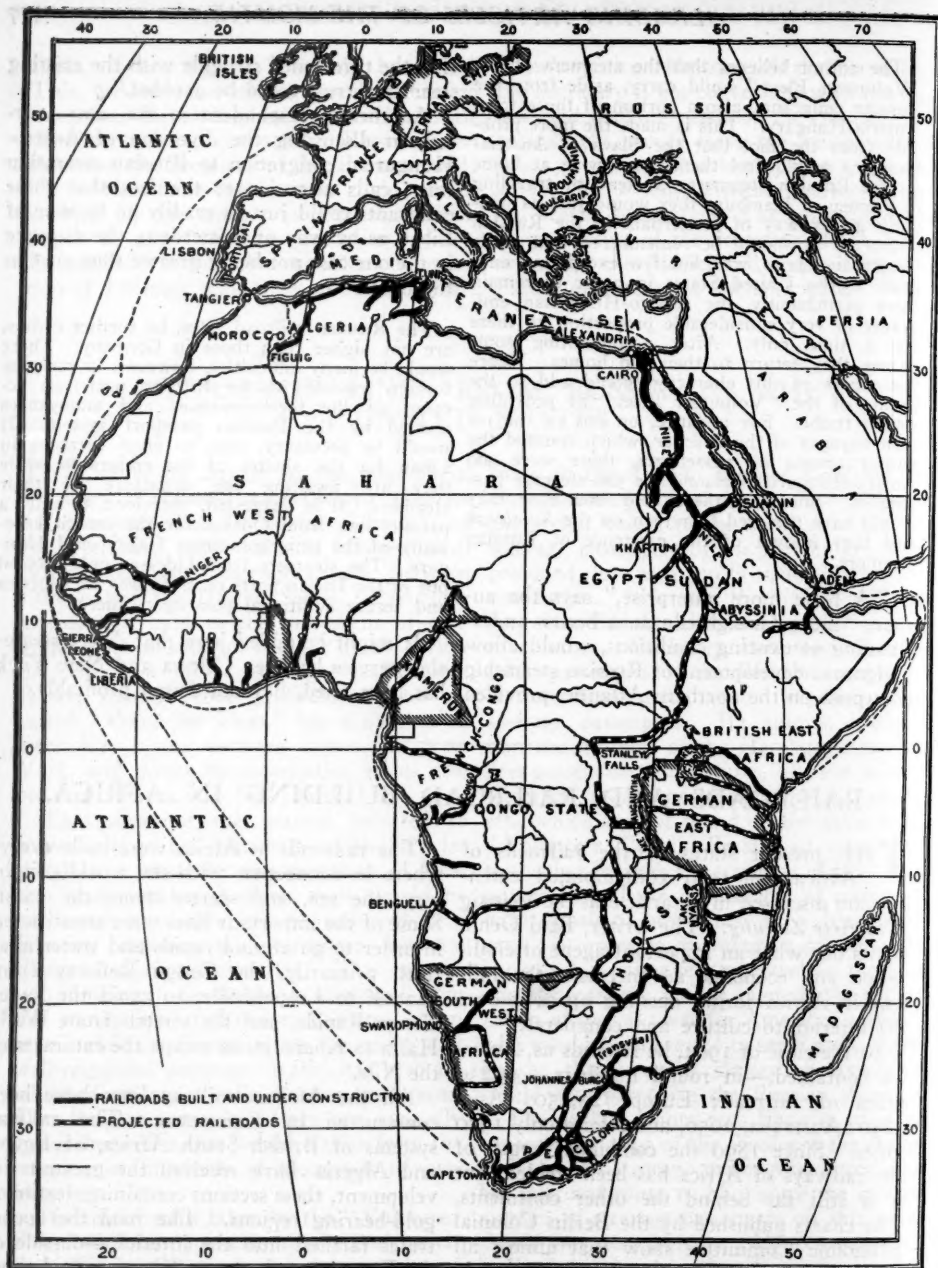
THE present status of the railroads of Africa and their contemplated extension are discussed in an article in the *Leipzig Illustrierte Zeitung*. The writer, Paul Dehn, points out what an important agent of civilization and economic advancement the railway in Africa forms, opening up as it does the interior to culture and commerce.

At the close of 1904, he reminds us, America contained,—in round numbers,—34,230 miles of railroad; Europe 23,150; Asia, 5840; Australia, 2050, and Africa only 1970 miles. Since 1890 the combined length of the railways of Africa has been trebled, but it is still far behind the other continents. The charts published by the Berlin Colonial Economic Committee show that almost all the railroads of Africa are built with the object of reaching points in the interior, and thereby opening them to commerce. The natives are thus incited to greater activity of production, and with increased earning there is greater consumption, which, again, promotes importation. This applies, of course, only to regions where production is possible on a large scale.

The railroads in Africa were built everywhere in connection with the world's highway, the sea, and started from the coast. Some of the important lines were constructed in order to go around rapids and waterfalls; thus, primarily, the Congo Railway from Matadi to Leopoldville, to avoid the lower Congo Rapids, and the stretch from Wady Halfa to Khartum, to escape the cataracts of the Nile.

All the African railway lines have been constructed by Europeans. The railway systems of British South Africa, of Egypt, and Algeria have received the greatest development, these sections containing fertile or gold-bearing regions. The road that penetrates farthest into the interior,—outside of the Egyptian railways to Khartum and those of South Africa to the Victoria Falls of the Zambesi,—is the British East-African line, from Mombasa to Lake Victoria Nyanza. The German writer enumerates the various railway routes which are projected in the German-African possessions and they are indicated in the accompanying map.

The talk about a transcontinental African



A RAILROAD MAP OF AFRICA.

railroad, Herr Dehn believes, is not at this time to be taken seriously.

For the present the plans of a railway across the Sahara to Lake Chad, or of one from German East Africa to the French Congo, appear fantastic. Even the much discussed project of a transcontinental line from Cairo to the Cape is, from an economic standpoint, a chimera, since

the route is flanked throughout in its entire course by an incomparably cheaper and more agreeable waterway. This overland road can serve only a political end, which Cecil Rhodes openly expressed when he said: "Africa English from the Cape to the Nile!" Whether such a road will ever be built seems doubtful. The long stretch from Khartoum to Lake Victoria Nyanza is little known, Lake Tanganyika offers

an obstruction, while the Congo Free State is reluctant to grant the right of way, and the German East-African administration may adopt a like attitude. This should hardly strike the English as strange, for they would never allow a railway to be built on their domain, particularly if it should be done to pave the way for the end of British dominion.

The financial status of the great railways of Africa is by no means unfavorable. About \$138,000,000 has thus far been invested in the British Cape Colony railroads. There is a deficit of only $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent., comparatively small when we recall that such well-managed roads as the Austrian and Hungarian show a greater deficit. Many Prussian lines

yield no profit for the present, but will gradually do so, and they are meanwhile rendering important economic service. According to information from the English Uganda Railway circles that road already yields a slight profit, which may be increased by suitable freight reduction. The investment in this road, besides, is shown to have been, comparatively, large,—approximately \$26,180,000. With better management, the English hold, about \$6,200,000 might have been saved. These experiences with colonial lines in southern and eastern Africa are calculated to encourage the advocates of railroad extension in the German possessions.

WILL OUR COAL RESERVES LAST?

COAL, as is more or less generally known, is derived from the accumulation of vegetable matter, and may be divided into three main classes,—anthracite, bituminous, and lignite. In the trade these are again subdivided, respectively: Anthracite and semi-anthracite, bituminous and semi-bituminous, and lignite and sub-bituminous. Semi-anthracite is a low grade of anthracite; semi-bituminous is a high grade of bituminous; bituminous is the common coal of the Eastern fields; sub-bituminous is lower than bituminous and above lignite in grade; while the latter is brown and woody, and found in the Dakotas, Texas, Arkansas, Mississippi, and Alabama. Bituminous coals alone possess the "coking" quality, and are used to advantage in the production of iron. Most of the high-grade coke comes from Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Virginia, Tennessee, and Alabama. In 1905, coal was the most valuable mineral produced in this country, being worth \$476,756,963, against \$382,450,000 for iron, \$149,697,188 for clay products, \$139,795,716 for copper, \$125,720,254 for oil and gas, and \$122,402,683 for gold and silver. The United States is the greatest coal-producing country in the world, and in 1905 mined 384,598,643 short tons, worth \$476,756,963.

Pennsylvania leads in production, although Montana, Texas, and North Dakota have larger, but inferior, coal areas. Illinois, West Virginia, Ohio, Indiana, and Alabama are other large producers. In the West, Colorado leads, followed in order by Wyoming, Washington, New Mexico, Montana, and Utah. Anthracite is found in West-

ern States in small quantity only. Colorado has the biggest area, but in New Mexico, Utah, Washington, and Alaska it is also mined. In fact, in Alaska is found the largest anthracite field outside of Pennsylvania. Coking coal is found in southern Colorado and northern New Mexico in good quantity, and in lesser degree in Utah, Washington, Wyoming, and Montana. Bituminous coal is largely mined in Colorado, Utah, New Mexico, Wyoming, Montana, Washington, and in Monterey County, California. Sub-bituminous coal is abundant in the West, Colorado, Wyoming, Montana, and Washington having generous supplies. Lignite is mined commercially only in North Dakota and Texas, but is found in eastern Montana, southern Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, and South Dakota. The coal fields belonging to the Government are principally lignite.

President Roosevelt's recent order withdrawing temporarily from coal entry 64,000,000 acres of coal land, and his recommendation to Congress on the conservation of our mineral fuels, induced Mr. Marius R. Campbell, of the United States Geological Survey, to discuss the question of the duration of our coal reserves in the *National Geographic Magazine* for February. In the East most of the coal lands have passed into private hands. Public interest, therefore, centers in the coal fields of the Rocky Mountain region and the Pacific slope. Including Alaska, the total for this aggregate area is 144,800 square miles of coal, 50 per cent. of which is owned by private individuals and interests. This would leave about 72,000 square miles still vested in the Government,

and deducting therefrom the area of the lignite fields, above referred to, there remains about 33,000 square miles of fairly good coal over which governmental dominion is absolute. This moves him to ask:

Have we an inexhaustible supply of coal, as many would have us believe, or should we begin to husband our resources? Is the Government justified in withdrawing all coal from sale, as proposed in the recent message of the President to Congress? The answer to these questions depends largely upon the broad problem of what is the extent of our coal supply, how rapidly are we using it, and is there a possibility that our stock of fuel will be exhausted in the near future?

Only by an estimate of our coal supplies can these queries be answered, and, while

1816 to 1825 331,356 SHORT TONS.

1826 to 1835 4,168,149 S.T.

1836 to 1845 23,177,637 S.T.

1846 to 1855 83,417,825 S.T.

1856 to 1865 173,795,014 S.T.

1866 to 1875 419,425,104 S.T.

1876 to 1885 847,760,319 S.T.

1886 to 1895 1,586,098,641 S.T.

1896 to 1905 2,832,599,452 S.T.

DIAGRAM SHOWING THE INCREASING RATE OF COAL CONSUMPTION IN THE UNITED STATES.

Mr. Campbell admits the probable unsatisfactoriness and incorrectness of such an approximation, he attempts to solve the difficulty on the basis of recent reconnaissance surveys. From the same he computes our total coal tonnage, exclusive of Alaska, at 2,200,000,000,000 short tons. This in cubic content would measure seven and one-half miles in length and in breadth and in height, or, in linear form, a layer of coal six and one-half feet thick over 400,000 square miles! In view of this apparently inexhaustible supply, he asks: "Is it possible that the people of this country can use such a mass of coal?" As the actual consumption must be ascertained first, from governmental statistics he establishes the fact that the amount produced in any one decade is equal to the entire previous production since 1816. From 1866 to

NEW ZEALAND
1,722,379 S.T.

U.S.A. REPUBLIC
2,696,117 S.T.

SPAIN
3,530,369 S.T.

N.S. WALES
4742,166 S.T.

INDIA
3202,711 S.T.

CANADA
8,775,933 S.T.

JAPAN
11,120,334 S.T.

RUSSIA
21,234,639 S.T.

BELGIUM
24,078,862 S.T.

FRANCE
37,663,349 S.T.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY
45,209,933 S.T.

GERMANY
191,576,076 S.T.

GREAT BRITAIN
284,464,408 S.T.

UNITED STATES 392,919,341 S.T.

OUTPUT OF PRINCIPAL COAL-PRODUCING NATIONS.

1875 our total was 420,000,000 tons; from 1876 to 1885, 848,000,000 tons; from 1886 to 1895, 1,586,100,000 tons, and from 1896 to 1905, 2,832,600,000 tons. "The rate of increase is enormous," says he; "it is simply appalling." Therefore, he declares:

If the rate of consumption of 1905 were maintained indefinitely, without change, our coal would last approximately 4000 years, but if the

constantly increasing rate which has marked the consumption during the past ninety years be maintained, our coal will practically be exhausted within 100 years.

Then, taking into consideration the factors of present consumption,—railroads, steamship lines, and manufacturing and domestic necessities,—which are likely to continue at the present rate if they do not increase, he places the real life of our coal fields at "about 200 years," and pertinently asks:

If this estimate is even approximately correct, is it not time for the Government to take some steps to prevent the remaining coal of the West from passing to the hands of corporations, to prevent wasteful methods of mining and use, and to conserve for the use of the common people even this small fraction of the total coal of the country?

THE RHODES EXPERIMENT.

WHILE it is still too early to pass judgment on the wisdom and ultimate success of America's acceptance of scholarships at Oxford and Cambridge under the will of the late Cecil Rhodes, it is, nevertheless, incumbent upon all who know the difficulties which an American student must face at the English universities to curb and dispel undue expectations on this side of the Atlantic. Our students have not achieved distinction, nor are they likely to do so for many years to come. In fact, there is little justification for hope in this respect unless we train our Oxford and Cambridge candidates along new lines. It is not the fault of the men themselves that honors have not been reaped by them, but rather the fault of their altogether inadequate and inefficient preparation for the tests that are offered in the "Schools."

Prof. R. M. Wenley, in the *Michigan Alumnus* for February, makes this clear. Pointing out the distinction that gives value and recognition to an Oxford or Cambridge degree, to wit: That it is intrinsically worthless unless of the *honor* grade, a mere *pass* degree counting as nothing,—he clearly establishes the fact that an American undergraduate trained to perfunctorily comply with four years' reading and receive a degree in common with hundreds of other men is sadly deficient as an Oxford or Cambridge competitor. With the Englishman an *honor* degree is the culmination of more than ten years' preparation along lines leading directly thereto and laid down by men thoroughly familiar with the requirements of the university examiners. What chance has an American student against men so prepared and guided?

At the English preparatory schools a boy is put in trim for a scholarship at one of the great public schools,—Eton, Winchester, Clifton, or Dulwich. Arriving at one of these institutions, if he is bright and alert, he is "run" for a scholarship at one of the colleges in either Oxford or Cambridge. As soon as he makes his appearance at one of the latter seats of learning, the "Dons" of his particular college take him in hand and "run" him to win the special scholarships, prizes, fellowships, and honors of the university. Training such as this outline suggests is foreign to the preparation of the American, and his chances are thereby diminished. The English candidate for a degree

"arrives" by a process of elimination which insures the survival of the fittest. One of the best American scholars at Oxford, discussing this feature with Professor Wenley, said: "Our preparation in comparison with that of the English scholars is simply ridiculous." An experienced Don also remarked: "I really cannot conceive what their preparation can have been."

These discoveries moved Professor Wenley to state:

We may infer, then, that this very title (scholar) places a burden upon the Rhodian. His fellow scholars, being the *crème de la crème* of the selective process outlined above, have arrived at a level of preparation which may be his by a happy accident, but wherefrom, by the very nature of his case, he is debarred as a rule. Besides, their preparation has come at the hands of those who "know the ropes" thoroughly from personal experience. Like is set to produce like. And as if to emphasize the difference even more, they represent the very best results of the English schools, arrived at by a thoroughly tried and conventionalized process; whereas, we have no such machinery, and, after a fashion, must make our selection on data very meager by comparison. Finally, the examination imposed upon the American candidate means nothing; as evidence of scholarship it has no standing at Oxford. It is no more than the bare entrance to the university required of *pass* men.

To overcome this difficulty in future we must compel ourselves to appoint with some concrete sense of the actual circumstances as they exist at Oxford. Colonials beat us because they are, "next" to the requirements, and our pressing business is to remedy the defect above outlined. The method of election is a serious handicap. Our students are pitted against men who have fought inch by inch for a matter of ten years, to the final competition, while Americans, lacking such training, have no idea of "what is wanted." Classical requirement,—Greek and Latin,—stands immovable at the very threshold, and specialize as he may in mathematics, physics, natural science, jurisprudence, modern history, Oriental languages, literature or history, the work of an American is discounted unless the "Humanities" figure prominently in his attainments. Men competent in any of the branches mentioned should be prepared especially for the classical requirements, and until this is done no great hope of success will be realized. American universities must agree on a plan, and the present haphazard method of election cease.

THE BRYAN-BEVERIDGE DEBATE.

WHAT promises to be a protracted exchange of views on the States' rights question between William Jennings Bryan and Senator Albert J. Beveridge is begun in the *March Reader* (Indianapolis). Mr. Bryan writes on "Our Dual Government," and Mr. Beveridge on "The Nation." The treatment of the question by the Nebraskan consists largely in quotations from Hamilton and Jefferson, with outlines of their views, while Mr. Beveridge's presentation resolves itself into an outspoken, unvarnished defense of the Roosevelt policies.

Centralization in the federal Government Mr. Bryan attributes to Hamilton, who planned a popular assembly to be elected every three years, and a Senate, elected by the people, to hold office during good behavior. To this he desired to add an executive to hold office during good behavior, and, likewise, would have the governors of the States appointed by the general Government and their laws subject to the Constitution and laws of the United States. Hamilton, he points out, feared the people and "the amazing violence and turbulence of the democratic spirit." Hence he regarded "a tenure for life, or during good behavior," the only weapon to encourage Senators "to resist the popular passions." Jefferson, contrariwise, says Mr. Bryan, would leave the States supreme in matters which concerned them alone, and would entrust to the national Government only national affairs. In Jefferson's own words:

The support of the State governments in all their rights, as the most competent administrations for our domestic concerns and the surest bulwarks against anti-republican tendencies; the preservation of the general Government in its whole constitutional vigor as the sheet anchor of our peace at home and safety abroad.

Mr. Bryan lays stress on the amendments to the Constitution which Jefferson secured, and points out that they relate to two things: "The protection of the individual and the assertion of the doctrine of local self-government." That amendment reserving powers to the States not specifically granted to the United States, he claims, shows the determination of the fathers to establish a dual form of government. This being so, he denies that any change in time and events has disturbed this equilibrium, and says the only way to permit the federal Government to enlarge its power is through an amendment to the

Constitution. Should Congress attempt to legislate for the States it could not succeed. First, it would not have the time; second, it would not possess the local knowledge. A systematic absorption of power by the federal Government would be a forerunner of despotism; and, referring to the California-Japanese imbroglio, he makes the point that a treaty cannot suspend the Constitution, because the President and Senators who concur in it are sworn to support the latter. Monopolies can be curbed by federal and State remedies which are supplementary, and this project is no justification for contracting the power of the State.

Senator Beveridge says the nation is the people in the mass, and the States are the same people split up into forty-six groups. There can be no danger therefore from the national Government because it's the whole people. Powerful interests, however, can more easily handle the small groups for their own selfish ends, and these are the ones mainly responsible for the present outcry against the Roosevelt attempt to do things for the whole people which the States themselves have not done or cannot do. He illustrates his point by referring to the Chicago riots of 1895, when President Cleveland sent troops to Illinois to quell the disturbances, although not requested by either its Governor or Legislature. Governor Altgeld denounced this action as an invasion of the State and a violation of the Constitution. Senator Beveridge replied to this attack and made it clear that the President's action was lawful, and the railroads approved it because *their own property was menaced by the rioters.* Then, they had nothing to say for States' rights; to-day, everything, because their selfish interests can be better protected under the State than under the federal Government.

The power of Congress to charter a bank, to prevent the passage of obscene matter through the mails, the Louisiana lottery suppression, and Quarantine law, the Pure-Food law, the Packing-House law, were all passed, although opposed by States' rights advocates, who ever "become excited for liberty when some financial interest is endangered by the assertion of nationality." The defense of this theory slumbers when no financial interests are involved, and the laws mentioned, Senator Beveridge believes, are themselves an unanswerable argument for

nationality, showing the progress of the American people toward national unity. Nationality means the American people acting in common against evils which affect them in common, and States' rights mean merely these same American people divided into forty-six sovereign groups and, therefore, acting impotently. The progress of nationality and the decay of States' rights grow out of changed conditions (*vide* Mr. Bryan, *supra*) which have brought us new problems and new necessities which States'

rights cannot supply. The dividing line, he thought, might be stated thus:

When an evil or a benefit is so widespread that it affects so much of the country as to be called national, the *nation's* power should be equal to end that evil or secure that benefit to the American people.

When an evil or a benefit is purely local and affects none of the American people except that part of them who live in the State where the evil exists or the benefit can be applied, and nowhere else, the *State* should end that evil or secure that benefit.

IS THE WORLD COMING TO RADICALISM OR SOCIALISM?

A SURVEY of the present status of "European Radicalism," written by P. Munch for *Det ny Aarhundrede* (Copenhagen), throws a valuable side-light on the outcome of the recent German elections and serves also to reassure those who may have feared that the immediate future would bring a fight to the finish between the extreme parties. The long-heard cry that "Radicalism is dead" is shown by Mr. Munch to be far from warranted by actual conditions. Passing in quick review from one country to another, he points out that the radical party,—or, rather, parties,—everywhere have been directing the trend of events, even when their numbers have been reduced to the verge of complete extinction.

He does not find an unbridgable chasm between the Radicals in the proper sense and the Social Democrats. They have much more in common and stand much closer together, he thinks, than do the Radicals and the Moderates or the Conservatives. When seeking to find the basic note common to all the radical groups, he comes to this formulation: "That all men are born and remain free and equal in their rights." In the light of this faith, the Radicals test existing society and all its institutions and beliefs. The result of the test, he says, is everywhere the same: That existing society is built on principles diametrically opposed to those upheld by the Radicals. It is built on distinctions based on chance and on conditions that are subject to alterations. Therefore, all Radicals demand a radical change that goes to the very roots of things.

He shows that the insistency of the Radicals that all things as well as all theories must be questioned and tried makes them equally disinclined to accept the panacea of-

fered by the Socialists, and the declaration of the other side that "all things are well in the best of all worlds." Each phase of social life must be scrutinized, they assert, and for each particular evil the needed remedy must be found. To them no "cure-alls" exist, nor any possibility of getting away from the social disease by denying it. Among the principal demands that enter into the radical programs of all countries he mentions complete universal manhood suffrage; a discontinuation of economical conditions making it possible for one man to exploit thousands of others for his own advantage; freedom from state guardianship in all questions of belief or opinion, whether social, political, or religious; and a total separation of religion and politics.

Mr. Munch insists that radicalism is not hostile to religion, but only toward the interference of the church with non-religious matters. He points out also that, while it is opposed to war and militarism in principle, it recognizes existing conditions and the impossibility for any nation at the present time to place itself at the mercy of its neighbors. On this account the Radicals of Denmark,—a country that cannot alone defend itself against any great power,—are opposed to a big army and navy and in favor of a neutralization of the country. In France, on the other hand, the Radicals admit the necessity of maintaining a strong defense as long as the present régime lasts in Germany.

To him France, with its large Radical majority and its Radical ministry, is the country that shows whitherward events are tending all over Europe. The reason that the French people is so far in advance of all other nations he seeks partly in its temperament and partly in the radical opinions pre-

vailing among its professors and teachers. He shows that the class which he calls the Academic has greater influence in France than in any other country, and that that influence is almost wholly exercised in favor of radical ideas. The temperamental reasons for the radicalism of the French nation he finds in its inclination to follow logic.

Once the Frenchmen have discovered that an old law is meaningless, unwarranted, and unjust, it seems to them the natural thing to cross out that law and adopt a wholly new one in its place. The Germanic races cling much more pertinaciously to what they have become accustomed to. Show them an old rule is without meaning and they will admit this with a shoulder shrug. But they will continue to obey the rule, nevertheless, because it is old and therefore to be held in reverence.

He declares the object of radicalism to be not only a reformation of the laws but of the popular way of thinking. The estimate of social values and rights must be changed. Thus the Radical party is not only a parliamentary group, but a distinct element of the people itself, working steadily for the spread of education rather than for the agitation of certain political ideas. And he quotes the words of Hørup, the late leader of the Danish Radicals:

Politics in the narrower sense,—all this rumpus about ministers, laws, reforms, and such things,—had for me only a secondary interest. I laid the stress entirely on the social revolution; I wanted a change in the order of precedence among the people; the new ministry was to me merely a symbol of the accomplished change.

CANADA, ENGLAND, AND "THE STATES."

WHILE annexation is no longer seriously discussed by either Canadians or Americans, from the political viewpoint, the desire for closer relations, such as commercial reciprocity would establish, is daily increasing. The physical map, not the political, is the index to what Canada really is, and this shows that the Dominion consists of four territorial sections, forming a broken line across the continent and separated from each other by wide spaces or barriers of nature, while each is closely connected in every way with the United States. Ontario gets her coal from Pennsylvania, and Nova Scotia sends hers to New England. There are 1,200,000 Canadians in the United States; in Massachusetts 150,000 alone. There is a counter-current of Americans into Canada. Churches interchange ministers; sport and summer resorts are enjoyed in common; American newspapers and magazines are widely read by Canadians; American investments are increasing; New York is the Canadian stock exchange, and American currency circulates everywhere but in Government offices. The spirit, and largely the form, of the political institutions of Canada and the States is similar, and, apparently, only political and fiscal lines keep the two countries apart.

All this has a tendency to make the relation of Canada to the British Government irksome, for it is difficult to combine the character of a dependency with that of a nation. British sentiment in Canada is not all-powerful. Again, there is such a thing

as anti-Americanism. The British Imperial Federation scheme has resulted in nothing more definite than the exhortation: "Think imperially." In reality, it appears to be an attempt at colonial subordination, which, of course, is irritating to Canada. The withdrawal of the military forces from Canada, the embargo against Canadian cattle, the loosening of racial ties by immigration,—excluding Catholic Irish, barely half the population is British,—the protective tariff against England, are all tending to fret the hawser that binds England and Canada. The constitution, while modeled on the British, and apparently monarchical, is really parliamentary. In its federal element, the provinces, the Canadian constitution departs from the British model and approaches that of the United States, making the whole national, with a federal structure. But it has no state right. The judicial appeal in the last resort, the supreme military command and the fountain of honor, are still in the imperial country. When, therefore, Canadians speak of their country as a nation, which they habitually do, they anticipate her coming emancipation.

Mr. Goldwin Smith substantially voices such views in the current number of the *Contemporary Review* (London). Ontario and Quebec, said he, came into confederation willingly. New Brunswick hesitated. Nova Scotia was dragged in by the hair of the head. Prince Edward Island followed; and to get British Columbia the Pacific Railway was built. The great Northwest is now in,

and Mr. Smith says: "A parallel instance of a nation so totally wanting in unity of territorial basis it would not be easy to name." The constitution was never submitted to the people, and the whole governing apparatus has led men to remark that "Canada is too much governed." Graft and dishonesty prevail at Ottawa and extend through the whole political framework. The caucus system is in full operation in Canadian legislatures, and the machinery and vocabulary of parties, generally, have been imported from the United States. The want of political cohesion as well as that of territorial unity among the provinces aggravates political corruption, and the lack of a common interest leads to extravagance in the government in order to obtain its necessary support. The press is likewise subservient. "Nowhere," says Mr. Smith, "not even in Ontario, which is its widest field, has it a constituency sufficiently strong to sustain its independence and enable an honest journal with impunity to withstand the passion of the hour." Literature, also, suffers from the narrowness of its field. The scope of the writer is not the Dominion but a province, and with difficulty can he secure recognition in the literary world in either England or the States.

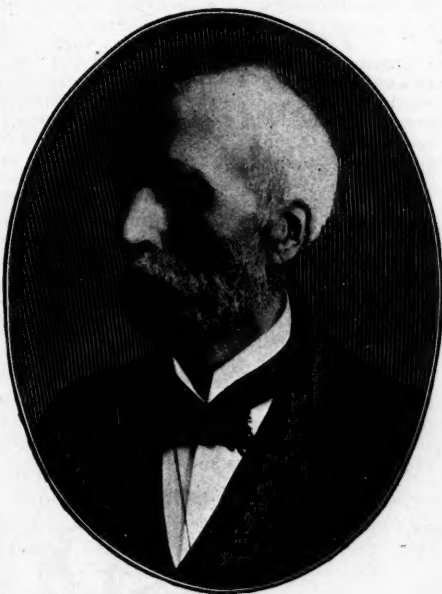
Even the judiciary, hitherto sound, is now being used to reward political services. The French, although content to live under British law, retain their separate nationality and fly the tricolor. Quebec is theirs, and they are advancing in eastern Ontario as well as to the north along the line of the Canadian Pacific.

That which kept them true to Great Britain in the Revolutionary War was the influence of the priests, who were opposed in the first case to New England Puritanism, in the second to revolutionary France. *Te Deum* was sung for Trafalgar in the Catholic Cathedral at Montreal. French sentiment is a good deal masked at present by the French Premiership of the Dominion in the person of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, which carries with it the patronage. The contingent would never have been voted by Quebec. Much less would Quebec join in a war against France. The sympathies of French Canada in the case of the rising of the French half-breeds in the Northwest were plainly shown. The priesthood, hitherto supreme, is somewhat losing influence. French Canadians go in great numbers to the factories of New England and bring back with them republican ideas. Meantime the race is exceedingly prolific, their priests encouraging early marriage. They have ousted the British from the tracts south of the St. Lawrence, called the Eastern Townships, and they are advancing in Eastern Ontario, as well as to the

north along the line of the Canadian Pacific. They aspire to extension in the Northwest, but are not likely to make way there.

THE CANADIAN NORTHWEST.

As for the Northwest, with its boundless wheat fields, it has been filling with Canadian, British, Icelandic, Galician, Swedish, Russian Doukhobors and Mennonites, and Jewish immigrants. The inrush of Ameri-



GOLDWIN SMITH, THE VETERAN CANADIAN EDITOR AND ESSAYIST.

can farmers from adjoining States is also great. "At the rate at which the Northwest is filling, and with the expanse of cultivable land which it is now known to contain, it must before long make its predominance felt politically, supposing that the confederation holds together. This, again, forms an important element in any forecast of Canadian destiny." Canada's destiny he summarizes thus:

It is here in the New World that the Canadian's destiny is cast and that his part has to be played. Here it is that he has to do what he can to make popular governments stable, wise, and beneficent. At present his eyes are always being turned toward a state of the Old World which cannot be reproduced in a new world. This is a bad part of the prolongation of the state of dependence, and justifies the policy of British statesmen in former days, who generally looked forward to colonial emancipation.

IS GERMANY A POLITICAL MACEDONIA?

BISMARCK claimed to have created German unity. But did he create it? We are accustomed to think of the Germans as members of a great homogeneous state. Are we justified in so thinking? If we take many indications at their face value "we have no right to consider Germany either united or homogeneous; and we have a right to marvel that governmental stability has so far been maintained."

Among other things German national life is afflicted with the intense feeling between the north and the south; jealousy and strife are constantly being fomented among the individual states of the empire; the wide divergence in the aims and ambitions of the "rurals" and "urbans" is well known; the want of national feeling between the general government and the single states has been cried to the skies; the autocratic defense of state rights in face of all national considerations is the scourge of German political life. This lack of national unity was strikingly manifested during the recent Reichstag electoral campaign. Indeed, the government had the utmost difficulty in mustering even the semblance of a national party, although the state was striving to oppose strictly anti-national elements. Is, then, the charge justified that Germany is not unlike a political Macedonia? Instead of heterogeneity of race we find complete divergence of political aims and ideals.

This whole question is discussed in the conservative *Grenzboten* (Leipsic) by a writer who does not attempt to conceal his bitterness over the general situation. He continues:

Are we a nation? A strange question truly on the threshold of the new year, forty years after the foundation of the North German Confederation. But the question is fully justified, and it is impossible to give it an affirmative reply. The past decades of work and progress have not made Germans the citizens of an empire in the full sense of the word. They have not molded us to a unity which feels, thinks, and wills the same about the great questions concerning the whole. It is true that we have done much in trade, in science, in government; but the calm, clear national consciousness which rests on the knowledge of might and culture is too often lacking. No one is more ready than the German to throw away his nationality when he goes abroad, no one is more quickly influenced by other peoples. And this occurs not through superiority of culture, but because we lack self-reliance and self-trust. Moreover, we find that the majority of Germans at home are Germans conditionally. They are Germans only when the empire and its government correspond to their personal views, prejudices, ideals, and needs. Otherwise they fall into that chronic *reichsverdrossenheit* (disgust with the state), a word and an idea which exist nowhere else in the world.

The writer draws particular attention to the narrow views prevalent in Germany in reference to the rights of the single states.

That the states should watch over their rights is natural and in order; but it is not in order that in all questions which concern the common good the only consideration is the unrestricted independence and power of the individual state and not the interests of the whole German people, for whose benefit the empire exists. In this vicious attitude the states themselves are exceeded by the landtags and liberal parties. Both of these organizations think it a matter of life and death for them to prove their single state patriotism to the world.

The political life of the empire at large manifests the same disorder. Many "parties" are called 'national' in Germany, but we find that these groups frequently fight each other in press and Parliament; and the parties that call themselves 'national' have rarely presented a solid front to the other side. Moreover, of the 'national' parties the Social-Democrats are directly anti-national." The Reichstag does not stand for the intelligence of the nation any more than it represents a national organization. This accounts for the "laborious and defective co-ordination of the most important national



BÜLOW'S GREAT VICTORY.
He thinks he is Bismarck already.
From the *Borszem Jankó* (Budapest).



THE GERMAN ELECTIONS: SOCIALISM UNDER HATCHES.

CAPTAIN VON BÜLOW: "We've settled the mutineers, sir!"

ADMIRAL HOHENZOLLERN (the German Kaiser): "Good! Then now we can go full speed ahead!"

From *Punch* (London).

laws; the poverty of the debates; the inclination to coarse destructive criticism on insecure foundations under the protection of parliamentary immunity."

At one time parliamentarism was the pride of the German people; but to-day, when Germany is flooded with large and small parties, parliamentarism is rapidly declining. And this decline will be hastened the more the national assembly brings to light the deeply rooted defects of the whole system, the party and clique management, defective preparation, and personal incompetency. That great men have rarely been able to obtain a majority in the Reichstag is also a noteworthy fact. Even Bismarck "never had a majority after the first year." . . . We are slaves of petty exclusiveness, incorrigible doc-

trinarism, pessimism, party passions, and lack of national consciousness.

German Imperialism and Parliamentary Government.

Dr. Theodor Barth, the eminent editor of the *Berlin Nation* (which, much to the regret of the rest of the world, has announced its early suspension), severely arraigns the administrative machinery of the empire. He says, commenting on the results of the recent general election:

It was a misconception of the grave disease which it was the purpose to cure to assume that a clever commercial management would suffice to put colonial affairs on a healthy basis; as if the problem to be solved were a preponderantly

economic and not far more, in a high degree, a political one! The wrongs and blunders of our colonial policy are only characteristic manifestations of that absolutist-bureaucratic-feudalist-clerical system of government whose radical reformation is every day becoming more and more a necessity of statesmanship. It is only that under the tropical sun of the colonies all the wrongs of our existing form of government ripen more rapidly and luxuriantly. Much as may be done, therefore, in the way of attempts at healing the disease of colonial politics, desperately little will be accomplished as long as no reforming hand is applied to the home system of government.

The weakness of "our parliaments has

long since, too, become a weakness of our administrations."

It was one of the gravest errors of Bismarck that he supposed the government would be strengthened in proportion as the influence of Parliament was checked. His system of government was based upon a latent conflict between Parliament and the administration. Even during his lifetime this system suffered total shipwreck, and he himself was swallowed up in the wreck. Since then the impossibility of maintaining this system has become more distinctly evident with every succeeding chancellor of the empire. And thus an ulcer has gradually developed in the constitutional body of our realm, which, with every session of the Reichstag, it becomes more urgent to probe.

AGRICULTURE AS TAUGHT IN CUBAN SCHOOLS.

IN the *Revista de la Facultad de Letras y Ciencias*, the organ of the University of Havana, we find a very suggestive article on the urgent need for some instruction in the rudiments of agriculture in the public country schools of Cuba. The author, Prof. José Cadenas, not only makes a strong plea for the introduction of this study but gives simple directions, with illustrations, showing how easily it could be managed with no expensive change in the present system. In the first place he points out that it is foolish ever to expect to reform agriculture from the top, or to think that it can be conducted in a more scientific manner until the field laborers are less densely and obstinately ignorant of the real nature of the processes in which they deal.

Trained farmers, graduates of agricultural colleges, expert overseers, university experiment stations are of no avail as long as the actual workers on the soil are wholly unable and unwilling to co-operate in intelligent methods. Special agricultural schools will not fill this gap, because the actual dwellers on the soil will never go to these schools. Whatever instruction they get must be given them in the common schools, which they are forced by law to attend. As to a too-crowded curriculum, Professor Cardenas says frankly that it seems to him of more importance that a child should have some general fundamental ideas about the nature of soils and conditions of vegetable life than about countries which he never will see. The future of Cuba is agricultural, and no efforts should be spared to put her in the way of competing successfully with scientifically trained rivals.

As to the instruction the author proposes to give, it is as simple as it is suggestive and valuable. A flower-pot filled with small stones, broken glass, and sand, planted with beans or some similar plant, will show the

nature of root growth. Plants growing in glass and water also show the direction, force, and necessities of growth underground. Screens about some pots, and sunshine on others, illustrate the relation of sunlight to plant-life and the disadvantages of shaded places. An elementary knowledge of the influence of light in the green coloring matter, and hence the health of plants, is shown by this method. The study of soil is to be done in the same unpretentious, practical way. The three fundamental elements of soil are to be learned and the various tests for determining their varying proportions in any given sample. Quoting from the article in the Cuban review:

Dried earth crumbled out on a piece of paper shows the children, even without the use of the microscope, the decaying vegetable matter, bits of woods not yet decomposed, and the underlying mineral constituents of all soil: sand, lime and clay. Various simple tests are shown, such as washing the sand clear from the rest, evaporating the water which has dissolved the clay and lime from the sand, and comparing the proportions thus obtained. The test for lime is to put an acid in the test-tube with the earth. This may be vinegar or lemon juice. The bubbles of carbonic gas show the existence of more or less lime. A few general ideas as to the value of the different sorts of soil are also to be taught, as that crops which thrive on a sandy soil will not do well in clay, and vice versa. Differences in manner of growth of plants are thus connected with the nature of soil, as that sand is easy for delicate roots to penetrate, is easily worked and kept light, but does not hold the heat during the night for tender plants as does clay. Also that clay needs less water than sand, since it retains moisture.

In all this plea for practical knowledge among country children of the conditions of life about them there is perhaps food for

thought for our own district school teachers and our own ignorant country children, especially now that we number more and more foreigners even in our country popula-

tion; and these last are wholly untrained in agricultural methods of the simplest sort, and find themselves in entirely unfamiliar conditions.

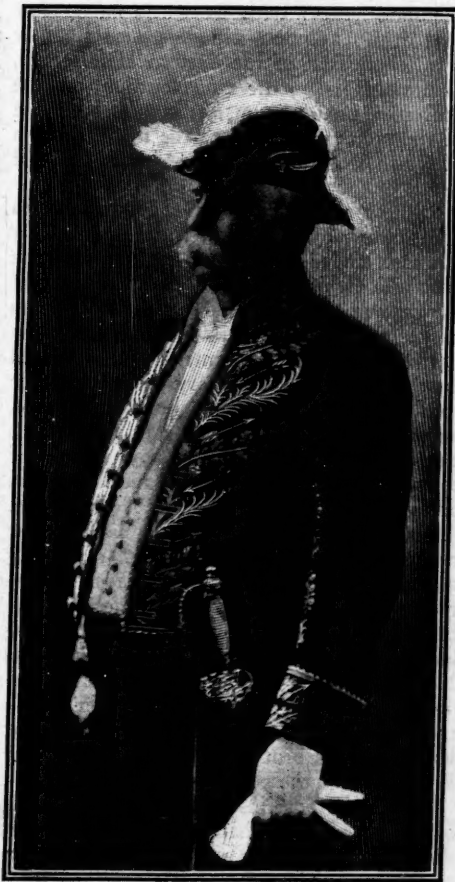
WHAT THE NEW MEXICAN AMBASSADOR REPRESENTS.

A GOOD deal of approving, commendatory comment on the appointment of Señor Enrique C. Creel as Mexican Ambassador to the United States appears in the press of our southern neighbor. Señor Creel, who was formerly Governor of the Mexican state of Chihuahua, has long been "one of the most prominent men in the official sphere, where he has distinguished himself for his eminently progressive spirit and for his initiative in the welfare of the state which he so fitly governed, and also prominent in the business world and in social circles." The quoted words are from an editorial article in the *Mundo Ilustrado*, of Mexico City. Of Señor Creel's career, this journal says further:

He was born in the city of Chihuahua, in 1854, where he was given the best educational advantages. He then embraced a commercial career, and such was the ability and push which he displayed as to win for him, before he had reached the age of thirty, the place of director of the Banco Minero. Owing to his efforts this institution advanced remarkably, until it ranked among the first of the country. Later on, acting with his own capital, Mr. Creel created various enterprises, figuring from that time among the most prominent business men of the republic. The different posts which he has occupied in the largest Mexican institutions of trade, such as the Banco Central, Banco Agrícola é Hipotecario, El Minero of Chihuahua, the Mercantile of Monterey, citing only the principal ones, accredit him in the fullest measure as a man of affairs.

The new Ambassador to Washington, we are told by several Mexican journals, represents his country in its most progressive, modern mood. He understands thoroughly the needs of the republic, prominent among which are more American methods and American capital. On this point we quote a paragraph from the *Progreso Latino* (also of Mexico City):

There is need to awaken in our people the spirit of enterprise and of vigorous, energetic, and potent action. We lack active life; we lack great industries; we have thousands and thousands of indolent men; we have entire regions where an instructed man is a rare object; immense territories where the smallest of modern inventions is not known; back countries, stationary towns, and societies that are sick with



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SEÑOR ENRIQUE C. CREEL.

an indifference and lack of enthusiasm for those activities which bring progress and prosperity to a nation. It is imperative that individual action, preceding any collective force, must treat for the betterment of these sad conditions. . . . The snorting locomotive announces the triumph of modern civilization. Where there are nets of railways there are prosperity, liberty, and riches. These roads of steel, and misery are two enemies that are irreconcilable. . . . The most prosperous countries are those in which the railway constitutes the most important factor in the national life.

THE NORSE BEGINNINGS OF MODERN RUSSIA.

THE growing extent to which all things Russian are absorbing the attention of the western world gives more than academic interest to Alexander Bugge's article in *Nordisk Tidskrift* (Stockholm), on "Novgorod as a Varangian City." Nijni-Novgorod, moreover, with its traditions dating back a thousand years; with its world-famed fair that draws 250,000 strangers each summer from every part of the Eastern Hemisphere, and with its picturesque location on the shores of Lake Ilmen, has always been one of those cities of romance the mere mention of which stirs the *wanderlust* in the heart of man.

Professor Bugge uses the opportunity to point out that the Norsemen not only fought but also traded all around northern Europe from the eighth to the thirteenth century of the present era, and that during those years they stamped themselves indelibly on those parts of the visited countries that bordered on the high seas. At every point along the coasts of England, Ireland, northern France, and Germany where the world's traffic finds passage, or where it did so once, the names of towns and harbors and islands and landmarks of various kinds show traces of Norse origin. A trail of such names, some disguised almost beyond recognition and others remaining nearly in their original form, leads the historian from Schleswig, along the German coast of the Baltic, past the island of Gotland, up the Gulf of Finland, up the imperial Neva, across the immense sheet of Lake Ladoga, up another river to Lake Ilmen and to the ancient city where the Swedish sea king Rurik and his brothers founded the Russian Empire about the year 862.

There the free institutions and the spirit of self-government characteristic of the Scandinavian race were established, and there they prevailed in more or less modified form until the Mongolian wave changed the racial character of the empire. About 1000 A. D. Novgorod had a constitution known as the *Pravda Russkaja*, and it shows that the Norsemen, or Varangians, were still the ruling class of the district. Special privileges were granted them, and particularly the privilege of affirming their side of a legal suit by oath alone when the Slavic and Finnish natives had to bring witnesses. Their cases were heard before twelve sworn "witnesses," six of whom were selected by either side to the suit. That institution, known as the

Tylftareidr, is shown by Professor Bugge to be distinct from the English jury system, and yet it is difficult to believe that a form of trial known to have been characteristic of the Scandinavians everywhere should not have co-operated in producing the later English form.

When, about the same time, the Grand Duke Igor sent a delegation to Constantinople for the purpose of negotiating a commercial treaty with the Byzantine Emperor, he chose as delegates twenty-five Norse merchants. And as long as the Varangian elements dominated the city of Novgorod that city sent its ships and its merchants all over the known world.

When Slav and Mongolian took power the spirit of enterprise died out, and thereafter the world came to Novgorod. About 1000 the Russians,—i. e., the Norse merchants at *Holmgaardr* (their name for Novgorod),—had their own church in the city of Visby on the Baltic island of Gotland. Two hundred years later that church had passed into other hands and the merchants of Visby had their own church at Novgorod. And it was men of Visby and Lübeck principally who made the long and toilsome trips to the shores of Ilmen, traveling in their own ships as far as the entrance of the River Wolkow into Lake Ladoga. There their cargoes were transferred into open flat-bottomed boats and carried by the Rivermen's Guild the three-day journey to Novgorod. In the city itself a separate district was set aside for the strangers, and there was a Varangian Street and a Varangian Quarter, the latter strongly fortified. The *Hird*, or bodyguard, of the ruling princes was still composed almost wholly of Norsemen.

Professor Bugge quotes the Arabian traveler, Ibn Fachlan, who in the year 922 met and described a party of Russian,—that is, Varangian,—merchants on the shores of the Caspian Sea. They were a wild lot, still preserving many of their heathen customs and superstitions, burning their dead and torturing the prisoners taken in war. They swore by their own weapons exclusively,—gruesome oaths that threatened the perjurer with eternal thralldom in the world to come. But they kept their oaths, and they carried along with them rich stores of song and saga, traces of which are still to be found in the folklore of modern Russia.

Together with the gods of war and of fortune, those of fancy and of poetry were also worshipped. The mixture of the Slavic and the North Germanic culture has apparently in the eleventh and twelfth centuries produced another and wholly distinct culture. It was the latter

which gave to Novgorod its liberty and its self-government; which made of this city a spot by itself in all Russian history, and which makes us believe that Russia but for the centuries of ret-

rogression caused by the Mongolian invasion would have developed social institutions like those of western Europe before the end of the Middle Ages.

THE AWAKENING OF THE RUSSIAN PEASANT WOMAN.

THE woman's demand for suffrage and social equality is a familiar fact of western civilization, but up to the immediate past the movement has been foreign to the Russian woman. Indeed, as a writer in the *Tag* (Berlin) observes, the male sex in Russia has enjoyed no social or legal preference over the female, "because both were deprived of legal and social rights." Therefore, the effort to enlighten the people has been a common effort, and "Russian men and women have fought shoulder to shoulder, have been common martyrs, have shed their blood together, and have occupied the same or neighboring cells in the Russian bastiles." But this situation has now changed.

The first Duma elections,—participated in only by men,—drew a sharp line between the two sexes, and the government's constitutional plan,—which limits its consideration to the male sex, and gives the woman no individual political rights,—has increased the breach. Further, the attitude of a portion of the male population in raising their suddenly acquired rights to a prerogative which they refuse to women has galvanized the dormant woman's movement, and has fixed in sharp contrast the formerly united male and female interests.

At present there are two women's organizations, both of which are energetically working in their chosen field; these organizations bear the titles: "League for Woman's Suffrage," and the "Female Progress Party." During the session of the first Duma these two organizations bombarded the deputies and the people with tracts and addresses, and "it was the direct result of their work that a majority of the Duma finally declared for woman's suffrage and incorporated it in the constitutional project." It would be natural to suppose that the movement would be limited to certain narrowly defined spheres, that the cultured woman of the middle classes, the educated working woman, and the occasional aristocrat would be the mouthpieces of the propaganda, and give expression to what is a mere intuition with the majority of Russian women. But the contrary is true. The cultured classes take "an active part in the movement, but the roots of the suffrage idea have passed deeply into the peasant strata,

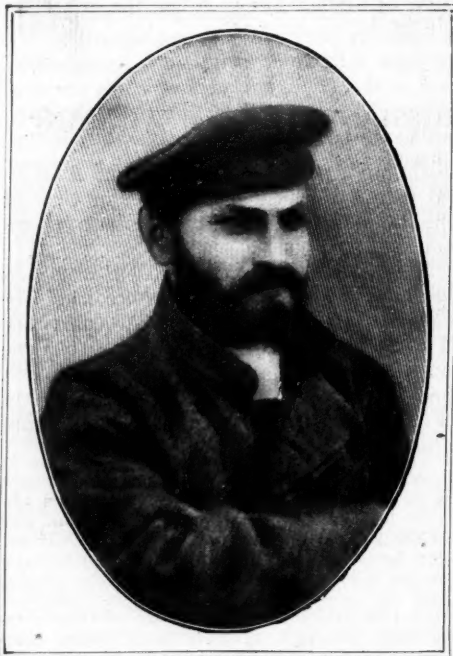
disclosing a power of judgment and a political maturity which are amazing in view of the low level of the Russian peasant in general."

The feeling among the Russian women is genuine; they foresee their future legal disenfranchisement and fear disastrous results. This fact is clearly shown by a characteristic manifesto which the writer in the *Tag* cites, and which was sent the deputies from the Tver department by the women of their district. The petition recites in part:

We, peasant women of the Tver department, write to the imperial Duma, to the deputies who have been chosen from our district. For, men of the Duma, we are discontented with our lot; our husbands and sons are willing for us to amuse them, but when it comes to the country and the new laws which are being discussed they will have nothing to say to us. Up to the present, although we have been beaten many times by our men-folk, still we have decided many important things together. But now they tell us that we are no companions for them, that they go to the Duma and rule the state, or if not they themselves, at least their deputies. If the law had made us equal with the men we would have nothing to say, but now women and maids must stand aside, outcasts, able to decide nothing for themselves. But gentlemen, deputies of the Duma, this law is unjust,—it separates peasant man from peasant woman, even makes them enemies. It is an insult to us women. We have borne misery in common with our husbands, but now, when the time has come for us to live together under the law, we are no longer needed. But, gentlemen, deputies of the Duma from the Tver department, in the name of God have sympathy with us. We are told that you can change the law. Then say to the Duma that all questions must be decided as God commands, and that every one must be admitted to the Duma, rich and poor, man and woman. Otherwise there will be no truth on earth or peace in families. In former times we had the same authority as our husbands, but now our husbands are to make laws for us and we are to be treated as babes and children. . . . We have not signed our names or the names of our towns because we fear our husbands and the government. But there are many young women and old women among us, and a thirteen-year-old girl writes this letter.

The fact cannot be overlooked that "from the Russian wilderness comes a full-grown woman's suffrage movement, faithfully reflecting the advanced ideas of the west."

THRILLING ESCAPE OF A RUSSIAN REVOLUTIONIST.



GREGORY GERSHUNI.

(The Jewish Russian revolutionist, now in this country, who escaped from a Siberian prison in a cask of sauerkraut.)

IT is a noteworthy list, that of the Russian revolutionists who, during the past year, have visited this country to arouse interest in the Russian people's fight for political freedom. It includes Maxim Gorki, Gregory Maxim, Nicholas Tchaikovski, and now the famous peasant leader Alexis Alyadin and the terrible Gregory Gershuni.

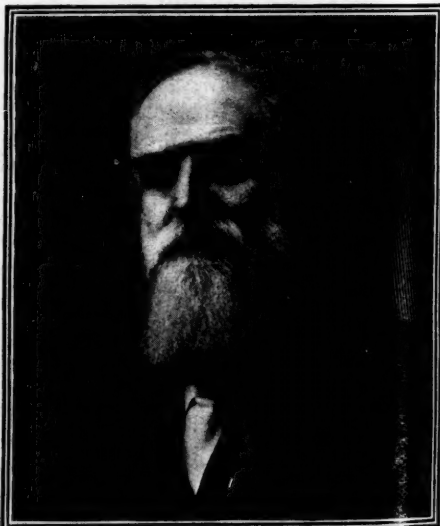
A most thrilling, dramatic story is that of the escape of the hunted Jew Gershuni, who got out of a Manchurian prison in a barrel of sauerkraut and fled across the desolate plains, slipping through Japan and across the Pacific to San Francisco. From the Pacific Coast to New York he has been making speeches and arousing sympathy for his oppressed countrymen. In a graphically told story, in the March number of *Charities and the Commons*, Paul U. Kellogg tells the story of Gershuni's escape. The career of this Jew revolutionist and his escape from the vengeance of the authorities is so typical that the outlines of it cannot fail to be instructive.

Gershuni is called the inventor of the revolution,—“a far-seeing tactician, a thinker

ahead of his enemies to confound their scheming and force their hand in unexpected quarters.” Plehve called him the backbone of the revolution when, in 1904, he sentenced the little Jew to death. Gershuni escaped execution, however, and his sentence was commuted to imprisonment for life. He was first sent to Moscow and then, in the summer of 1906, with a number of others, to Akatui, on the Mongolian frontier, in Manchuria,—a month by train and ten days afoot. Of his own career Gershuni says: “It is like the career of many another revolutionist. You begin with a book and you wind up with a revolver.”

Here is Mr. Kellogg's description of Gershuni's escape from Akatui, the data being gleaned from conversation with the revolutionist himself:

The prison was fast, he tells you with his quick gestures, so fast that the prisoners were left by themselves in the strong room where they were kept at work on provisions for the garrison. Opposite were the houses where the officials lived and the storehouse to which the prisoners carried the provisions under guard. Everything that passed was examined by the officials, but a chance lay in the barrels of sauerkraut filled from cabbages cut up in the prison room. When the day of the trial came, Gershuni doubled up into a cask, and his fellows fastened in above him a false head, or partition, fashioned from leather found in the workroom. It was crude, but it kept up most of the cabbage and trickle that they filled in to the bar-



NICHOLAS TCHAIKOVSKI, KNOWN AS THE FATHER OF THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION.

rel's brim. Two-rubber tubes had been smuggled into them, and these they fixed to two breathing holes inside the bottom of the barrel. Gershuni had a revolver, a little bread and a little ether in case he could not breathe. And, yes, another weapon of defence. The keepers had a bad habit of examining barrels by running their sabers down through them. Here was a danger,—but how to be met? By an iron saucepan jammed down over the ears. As he tells the story, Gershuni conveys inimitably the patriotic discomfort of his position. Did ever adventurer set forth for his cause in such wise,—with a sauerkraut barricade, with a saucepan helmet, curled up like a seedling in a cask?

What followed was rather indistinct to him. Whether from lack of air or the discomfort of his position, his head was dull and full, and he could hear little or nothing. Things moved slowly there in the barrel. He knew that his fellow prisoners had selected the strongest of them to handle it, to place it on the wagon, with a little block under the edge to let the air in; thence to be taken to the storage building escorted by the guard. "What have you?" "A barrel of sauerkraut,"—they had practiced how they would say it.

They feared new dangers would be in waiting here,—not the least of them the rampant appetites of the wives of the officers for fresh sauerkraut. As a precaution, the prison workers were to urge that they lower the barrel through to the sub-cellar, where it was colder for the sauerkraut. They were allowed to do this, but in midair the ropes cracked, and the barrel turned. Other than to add quick pains to the misery of the man inside no damage was



A GROUP OF REVOLUTIONISTS AT THE AKATUI PRISON IN SIBERIA.

(Gershuni is the man in the front row.)

done, and he was rolled at length on the floor of the sub-cellar. Even then there was an in-



Alyadin.

Jilkin.

Ankin.

THREE OF RUSSIA'S PEASANT LEADERS.

terminable interval before the last foot had shuffled out and the key turned. With his knife Gershuni slit the leather partition and was doused with sauerkraut. Down it came over his saucepan and into his eyes and mouth and neck. Then he felt the wrench of a stout pair of hands, the barrel head gave way, and his nose was in the free air again.

His rescuer was one of the revolutionists who had been planning the escape from without the prison, and who had dug a narrow tunnel from the courtyard back of the storage house to the sub-cellar. The two of them crawled into the tunnel and waited for a signal. It was a long wait. They thought twice that they were discovered. . . .

The signal came; by skirting the houses the two men reached the outside of the village, and across some rough hills to where a horse and wagon were in waiting for them. Gershuni had had a razor, and in the sub-cellar had shaved his beard and changed his clothes; he was a workman now instead of a prisoner. They drove for two days and two nights without a stop, reaching Manchuria, and thereafter he went on in the guise of a Russian tramp, directed by friends of the revolution at each point to the man to look for at the next stopping place. When you ask for more particulars as to his long flight to the coast and how he reached Japan, you get a shrug of the shoulders and a terse "They are my friends."

ROUMANIA, A NATION WITH A FIXED IDEA.

ALTHOUGH wholly European in character, the Roumanian people are very little known to even well-informed persons. It is welcome, therefore, to read, in the *Hojas Selectas* (Barcelona) a paper on this interesting nation.

A brief historical account describes the surprising way in which the Roumanians, during centuries of oppression by the Turks, managed to preserve their national feeling, their peculiar national character, uncontaminated by the surrounding mixed races, their traditions, their religion and their language. All this they did in obscurity, disorganized, with none of the inspiration of a government of their own or open opportunities for their energies. It is not surprising, therefore, that since their independence they should have forged ahead as energetically and forcefully as any of the Western States of America. In forty years they have become a nation welded together by the ties of common sentiment and interest and inspired by the most patriotic and single-hearted aim in life.

After Greece had succeeded in freeing herself from the Turk, the countries along the Danube followed her example and fought so valiantly and struggled so unceasingly for their individual existence that at last, in sheer shame, Christian Europe was obliged to acknowledge them as independent kingdoms. But this recognition was not obtained without some practical benefits to the grasping so-called Christian powers. Impersonal and unhuman diplomacy took no account of language and feeling as a basis for frontier lines, but placed boundaries between people that are one in spirit. Roumanians have never failed to have as their aim to unite under their flag all those of their own tongue, spirit and customs. And the Roumanian inhabitants of Hungary, Transylvania, Bucovina and elsewhere have never ceased to aspire to become an integral part of the nation to which they belong by all the rights of common feeling.



THE BENEVOLENCE OF THE ROUMANIAN QUEEN.
(Carmen Sylva—Elizabeth, Queen of Roumania—reading to a patient of her own asylum for the blind at Bucharest.)

It is forty years now since the present King of Roumania ascended the throne, during which time his aim and the aim of his people has never wavered. The anniversary of Roumanian independence was celebrated recently with every sign of the prosperity and material advance which have marked those years. The Roumanian army, the darling of the nation, has grown and progressed until, in proportion to its size, it ranks among the first of Europe. No attempt is made to conceal the fact that the aim of this concentration of attention on the army is for the purpose ultimately of forcing back the boundaries of the kingdom until all Roumanians at heart are openly subjects of the Roumanian Government. At the recent jubilee celebration this generous wish of the people was shown in a thousand ways very striking in modern times when such ideal aspirations are little felt: Bands of Rou-

manians from other countries were cheered to the echo in the streets and fêted all over the city like lost sons. Certain Roumanians who have lost position and money in the struggle against the Hungarians were treated as holy martyrs.

The recent jubilee exposition at Bucharest revealed hitherto unknown riches of Roumania. Its agricultural future should be golden, since its vast plains of fertile land are suitable for that purpose and its population is both thrifty, hardy and intelligent. One of the great assets of the future of the kingdom is its deservedly popular royal family. Its King (a Hohenzollern by birth) is a wise, devoted, and experienced sovereign; its Queen is the talented and much beloved Carmen Sylva, and its royal family, of impeccable integrity, is devoted heart and soul to the country and related to some of the most influential royal families in Europe.

JAPAN AND THE UNITED STATES—PARTNERS.

AN effective reply to the recent war talk in the United States and Japan, in the form of a demonstration of the mutual commercial interdependence of the two nations, is contributed to the *North American Review* for March 15 by Baron Kaneko, whose intimate acquaintance with American, as well as Japanese, conditions gives added force to his argument.

Beginning with the proposition that the United States and Japan are the two nations of the world that to-day hold the key to Asiatic commerce, with the Pacific Ocean as the common waterway of international trade, Baron Kaneko proceeds to describe the existing commercial relations between the two countries. He maintains that the products supplied by Japan to the United States,—namely, raw silk, tea, and artistic goods,—can never be produced here in any considerable quantities. Government statistics show that in 1906 the raw silk exported from Japan amounted to \$60,000,000, of which 90 per cent. came to the United States. The value of the tea exported last year by Japan was \$20,000,000, a large proportion of which was consumed by the United States and Canada.

Baron Kaneko feels warranted in stating that no lady in the United States can get a silk dress if the importation of silk from Japan is stopped, and that the average Amer-

ican citizen cannot drink tea if Japanese tea is excluded from America.

On the other hand, if any American will study closely the conditions of Japanese life, he will be amazed, says this Japanese authority, to find how much the Japanese depend upon American products:

In the ordinary upper or middle class families in Japan, we get up in the morning from a bed whose sheets are made of American cotton, put on the Japanese costume, which is made from American cotton, eat bread whose flour comes from Minnesota, and take a cup of tea with condensed milk from Chicago and sugar from the Philippines, Hawaii, or the southern United States. After breakfast, we light a cigarette or take a puff at a pipe. In either the tobacco used comes from Virginia, Tennessee, or some other American State. We take up our morning newspapers, whose pages are of paper imported from Milwaukee or western Connecticut. So great is the extent of Japanese dependence upon the United States. We cannot raise raw cotton. Of the raw cotton imported into Japan, 75 per cent. comes from the United States. Condensed milk, tobacco leaf, flour, and paper we cannot either raise or make in our country at prices lower than the Americans charge.

At night, all our streets, in every city, town, and hamlet, from the extreme north of Kurile to the extreme south of Formosa, are lit with petroleum which comes from West Virginia or Pennsylvania. So, then, the United States feeds us, clothes us, and gives us light. The Japanese cannot live a single hour without American supplies.

Now, let us look at the industrial plants: Baldwin locomotives, telephones, electric apparatus, street-cars, and practically all the machines in small shops are imported from the United States. These imports are increasing year by year, while at the same time our exports to the United States are increasing with equal rapidity. Since the United States Government has taken up its policy of expansion toward the west the trade of the two nations, far from conflicting, is growing without any collision or disadvantage to either party. Politicians and businessmen are aware, through their daily reports and commercial information, of the facts I have cited. Therefore it is that the people of Japan feel that under these circumstances the two nations are destined to play an important rôle in extending their trade into the continent of Asia, and that it is their natural function to open up China to international trade.

Japan sends raw material to the United States and the United States sends manufactured goods to Japan. If we sever our relations and fight each other, the commercial ties between the two nations would be shattered, and the Chinese market would fall into the hands of England, Germany and France. Thus the United States and Japan, no matter how favored by their geographical advantages on the Pacific Ocean and by their means of quick communication by the submarine cable, would lose all the benefit of the Asiatic trade. I need not stop to point out how very necessary that market is to both countries. Would that be a wise diplomatic policy which should sever our united nations? Can the people stand a policy so detrimental to international comity? I repeat that in the twentieth century it is the increase and expansion of international commerce that guides the policy of the nations.

Why Not an "Intellectual Alliance" with Japan?

Of the various means suggested with a view to bringing the United States and Japan into closer contact, we may draw the particular attention of the reader to the one set forth in Baron Kaneko's article in a recent issue of the *Taiyo* (Tokio). It will be recalled that during the late war the Baron

was sent to this country by the Mikado with a certain important mission. "During the eighteen months of my recent sojourn in America," says this statesman, "I found out that religious prejudice against our country was not so strong among the Americans as I had feared. On the contrary, they did not hesitate to show sympathy toward us from motives of justice and humanity. At the same time, I was led to believe that western

antipathy toward Japan, springing from the difference of race, was growing keener instead of lessening." According to Baron Kaneko, this tendency is recognizable not only between the east and the west, but among the western races themselves. As an illustration, he says that in the United States peoples belonging to the Anglo-Saxon and Teutonic races become easily assimilated one with another, while their attitude toward the Latin race is no friendlier than it was formerly. Continuing, he says:



BARON KENTARO KANEKO.

In the colonial policies of the western powers we also notice a remarkable change. In the past, religion was the chief instrument employed by the powers in their efforts to befriend backward races; now the sword and gold have taken the place of the Bible and missionaries. The United States, for example, has adopted this policy in the administration of the Philippines. It is military prowess and financial strength which form the foundation of the American policy in their new possessions in the Far East. Along with the western expansion in the Orient, Europe and America have been seriously contemplating whether they are capable of governing Oriental races, and especially those in the tropical regions, permanently. While the western powers were becoming more and more apprehensive of the future of their eastern colonies, Japan, the victor in one of the greatest wars of history, loomed up in the horizon of the far-eastern politics, thus adding a new anxiety to the fear of the Occidental statesmen. To-day, it is the apprehension of both Europe and America that

the Mikado's empire may not only exert influence over her neighboring countries, but may ultimately shut out all the western nations from the entire east. In this apprehension, racial prejudice, which the West cherished against the east, has found a new haven. Thus, the powers, which until yesterday have endeavored to come into touch with the Oriental nations through the influence of religion, do not to-day hesitate to assume hostile attitude toward Japan.

As a means of counteracting this undesirable tendency, Baron Kaneko thinks it advisable to promote intellectual intercourse between the east and west. The nations can never become friends until they understand one another. A nation needs to understand another's political and social conditions lest these two become embroiled in needless troubles. For such reasons the Baron suggests that Japan cultivate intellectual intercourse with Europe and America after an idea already adopted between the United States and Germany. On this point, he says:

The most notable instance of the means of encouraging such intercourse is found in the inauguration of the Kaiser Wilhelm lectures in Columbia University and of the President Roosevelt lectures in the University of Berlin. Such an arrangement will no doubt go a long way toward the obliteration of the ill-feeling that has existed between Germany and America.

Once such an example is established, it will be followed in other countries, thus assisting in the cultivation of the arts of peace and amicable relationship among all nations of the world. Already it is reported that Italy, too, will soon inaugurate a course of American lectures in an institution at Rome, if some American university will agree to exchange professors with this Roman institution. This movement in Italy was undoubtedly suggested by the existence between that country and the United States of a feeling of animosity engendered by the massacre of Italians which took place in New Orleans several years ago. Nor are Italy and Germany the only European nations which are striving to promote intellectual intercourse with America. An English millionaire has recently donated a large sum of money with which to send 500 educationists to the United States for the purpose of studying its economic and educational conditions. All such undertakings should be heartily welcomed as a means of establishing a lasting peace among the nations.

Baron Kaneko finds encouragement in the fact that England has recently invited Professor Kikuchi to deliver, in London, lectures on the educational system of Japan. He suggests that the Tokio Imperial University promptly reciprocate England's courtesy. The Baron also pays compliment to Professor Ladd, of Yale University, who is now lecturing at various institutions in Japan.

NEW PHASES OF THE ETERNAL POLISH PROBLEM.

RUSSIA and Prussia have been forcing their national culture on the Poles for many decades. For many decades the Poles have borne this in patience. Now they have turned upon their oppressors.

Two years ago the Polish youths ceased attending the government schools of Russian-Poland from the lowest to the highest, demanding that instruction be given in the Polish tongue, and last year the youths of Prussian-Poland struck for their own language in religious instruction in the elementary schools. The Poles under Russian dominion have already partially triumphed. The Russian Government has permitted Polish instruction in private schools; has introduced Polish instruction in the elementary schools, and has decided to transfer to Russia the Warsaw University and the Warsaw Polytechnical School, with their professors, who, as the Poles declare, are, in reality, bureaucrats, not pedagogues.

The energy later developed by the Poles under Russian dominion in the field of cultural work, despite the various obstacles set

by the government and despite the anarchic state of the country in consequence of the terrorist activity of the Socialists, has attained results that amaze the foreign world. Through the spoliatory administration of the Russian officials and the suicidal "revolution" carried on by the *doctrinaires*, the industry of Russian-Poland, which formerly reached with its products from the Russo-German frontier to the Pacific Ocean, and which gave a livelihood to half a million of workmen, has been utterly destroyed. The country has no roads, no hospitals; it is without many of the most primitive arrangements of social and economic intercourse; and yet the Poles do not hesitate to sacrifice their last kopeck for one need which they recognize as the greatest,—the school.

The past year saw a broad development of the educational movement in Russian-Poland. This development is visible especially in the ten "governments" that comprise the Kingdom of Poland and in some of the "governments" of Lithuania. The Poles obtained the legalization of innumerable cul-

tural associations; and these associations are establishing all over the country schools for children and adults, people's universities, seminaries for teachers for illiterates, school museums, permanent and circulating libraries, and are disseminating educational publications. Besides innumerable local societies which have sprung up all over Russian-Poland for the "diffusion of knowledge," societies of "friends of learning," "students' aid" societies, societies of "lovers of art," "historical" societies, "geographical" societies, societies for the "care of children," "aeries" of the gymnastic union, Falcon (Sokol), etc., there are the associations of a more general character in education,—the Union of Teachers, the Association of Courses for Adult Illiterates, the Unity, the Circle of Polish Women in Lithuania, the Society of Polish Culture, and, most important and efficient of all, the Polish Mother of Schools (Polska Macierz Szkolna).

THE MODERN SCHOOL OF POLAND.

On the quasi-constitutional manifesto of October 30, which (as the Chicago *Zgoda* recalls) granted various trivial benefits in order not to bestow the one great benefit,—a parliament with legislative power,—the Polish community built its entire present system of national schools, which has excited the admiration of the world. Says the *Zgoda*:

The Poles availed themselves of the liberty of private teaching; the Polish Mother of Schools organized an entire school system, at the head of which such men as Sienkiewicz, Osuchowski, and Gadomski took their stand. Contributions were called for; one person gave 100,000 roubles (\$50,000); thousands gave a kopeck each; and this has enabled the community to cover Russian-Poland with a net of national schools. To crown the whole work there was opened last October a Polish university in Warsaw. This is not one of the so-called people's universities, where lectures are delivered for all and about everything, but is a real university of the grade and quality of European universities. All branches of knowledge (with the exception of medicine) are taught in a manner that will enable the student to obtain the degree of doctor in the University of Cracow, Austrian-Poland. Among the professors in the university are Mahrburg, one of the greatest authorities on philosophy; Korzon, the greatest living Polish historian; Krzywicki, a first-rate ethnographer; Dickstein and Kramsztyk, in mathematics and natural history, natural philosophy, and chemistry; Wroblewski and Nalkowski, in geography; while literature is taught by a dozen men eminent in that branch of knowledge. In the first three weeks of the university 1496 students had qualified.

When the development of events in Russia

made possible for the Poles a public educational organization and the organization of their own Polish schools, the Polska Macierz Szkolna began its work by elaborating educational manuals and seeking teachers for the schools. At the same time, it carried on negotiations with the government for the Polonization of the government schools. These negotiations had already reached a good stage; the Ministry of Education had agreed to many things, even to the formation of a miniature school board for the Kingdom of Poland, and it intimated that the government would set no obstacles to Sienkiewicz's standing at the head of that board. All these negotiations in the matter of the Polonization of the schools were broken off, however, by the "revolution." The Polish language has been introduced only in the primary schools. The Poles, therefore, set about the establishment of their own private-schools system. Since the first public convention (on July 8, 1906) of the Macierz, the institution, which was to become the center of a highly cultural and social work, its membership has grown by the rise of circles all over the country, until now it numbers more than 200,000 members.

A German-Polish Apology.

Destroy a man's language and you efface his nationality. This is the basic principle upon which European nations invariably proceed in their work of assimilation. It is the spring which actuated Russia in her relations with Poland; it is likewise back of the school question in the Prussian-Polish provinces. Prussia has spent vast sums of money in efforts to buy out the Poles and supplant them with German colonists; she has availed herself of every administrative measure which could hamper the spread of Polish influence. But all has been useless. The Prussian commission has not been able to compete with the Poles in land purchases; the German colonists, in face of the Polish boycott and open antipathy, have not settled on the land. Therefore the laws in reference to the use of Polish in public meetings. And latterly the supreme effort in the prohibition of Polish in the schools.

The Poles are keenly conscious of the menace to their nationality, and they are clinging to their language with a superb determination.

That the attitude of the Poles is justified and that only the exigencies of a harsh political situation could have driven the govern-

ment to its present course, is the feeling more or less openly voiced in the German press. Hugo Ratzloff, in frank confession of the faith in the *Türmer* (Stuttgart) leaves aside the comparatively unimportant question of the rights of the Poles to their language and approaches that broader consideration of the rights of the Poles to a nationality. In the end the two things meet on the same ground. The opposition of Russia and Prussia to the Polish tongue is based on precisely the same reasons as the opposition of these two dominant nations to the existence of an independent Polish state. But why should there be any objection to the Poles existing as a separate nation?

The Poles are a people of pure race and they have succeeded in maintaining this racial purity even amid the vicissitudes of a triple division of their kingdom. Only a people of pure race has a history, and the history of Poland contains chapters which are not eclipsed by the records of any other nation. Therefore, how can we claim that they are unworthy to have their own house and their own state? In point of fact, they are much more worthy than many other nations. They are certainly more worthy than the modern Greeks, the Servians, and the miserable people that cover the surface of South America. But, notwithstanding this, can we in this imperfect world allow our idealistic dreams to carry us to their logical conclusion? Can we give the Poles the Slav portion of east Prussia,

Posen, and Silesia? Can we recreate the Polish kingdom?

The very thought of such an eventuality causes Herr Ratzloff to tremble. To the above question he cries a "No!" and "again no!"

To do this would be to abandon our country to the Oder, to jeopardize all territory to the Elbe. This would be a crime against 40,000,000 German souls, the destruction of our security, and, above all, disloyalty to our word. The Poles may be better than many other peoples, but what we have purchased with so much blood and tears that will we hold and keep. For politics is not a question of justice. Morally the division of Poland was a crime. Politically it was a necessity. A nation that is incapable of national existence but which is nevertheless a menace to the existence of neighboring states must be split up and absorbed by those neighboring states. This is the world procedure. It is manifested to us throughout the whole course of political history. In the battles of nations there is only one eternal, unchangeable law: the right of the nation to existence which is best fitted for existence. And woe to the people that ignores this law!

To expect the Poles to become loyal German citizens is to expect them to deny their nationality. But the less we expect them to do this, the less we hope for the banishment of their dreams of a new world power, the more it is our national duty to keep down the anti-German-Polish movement with an iron fist. We must either expel the splinter or we must absorb it.

FINLAND'S WOMEN TO THE FRONT.

THE first election under the new Finnish constitution took place on March 15. The outcome of it is by this time known through the daily press. Its most remarkable feature, however, was wholly independent of what party carried off the victory or went down to defeat. For the first time in the history of the world European women exercised the full privilege of political suffrage, without any restriction not also applicable to the men. It is, perhaps, still more remarkable that enfranchisement was conferred on them by the commission drafting the new election law after every party in the country had put on its program a demand for woman suffrage. Between the promulgation of the law and the date set for the first election under it the women developed an activity which would in itself have proved them worthy of the rights granted them. Schools for women voters were established everywhere, and for weeks prior to the election the poor peasant women

of pure Finnish blood and the highly educated women of the Swedish-descended intellectual class sat side by side in rapt attention while the provisions of the law as well as the task awaiting them as voters and as possible lawgivers were explained to them fully and clearly by the leaders of the woman movement.

Miss Maikki Friberg, herself one of those leaders and a candidate for the Landdag on the ticket nominated by the Young Finnish party, writes, in *Det Ny Aarhundrede* (Copenhagen), of the events which logically resulted in the enfranchisement of her sex. She points out that the provision giving suffrage to the women came as a surprise to the whole civilized world, and that, when the first shock of surprise had passed, everybody regarded it simply as an additional sign of the general spread of democratic ideas. But the action of the various parties, followed by that of the commission, had its origin, she says, in something much more tangible than

mere democratic sentiment. It was in recognition of an urgent economic and political demand.

It was taken because during the long years while Finland was fighting a desperate and seemingly hopeless battle for its national existence the women had proved themselves as sincere, as fearless, as able, as capable of self-sacrifice as their fathers and brothers and husbands and sons. They raised most of the funds needed and used for the patriotic agitation; they spread the pamphlets and circulars which had to take the place of a gagged or entirely suppressed press; they bolstered up the faltering courage of their weak-kneed brothers. This they did in constant danger of prison and Siberian exile, and more than one of them paid some such price for daring to prove her devotion to the freedom of her country. During these sorrowful years, while the women were engrossed with their work of saving the country, their eyes were opened to the importance of the suffrage, and they joined hands with the pioneers of the movement. And as the large majority of women learned through their own experience what a powerful weapon universal suffrage is in the struggle for freedom and country, so the men learned the importance of the women's contribution to the political life. They learned how necessary it is for a small nation, the independence of which is continuously threatened, to release and employ all its forces.

FINLAND'S NEW SUFFRAGE LAW.

The new law was approved by the Czar on June 20, 1906, and went into effect on October 1. Immediately the leading women of the country began the task of planning how to use their new rights. It was decided at once that the women should join the old parties, each one according to her own conviction and inclination, but that, from the very beginning, they would refuse to submit blindly and unconditionally to a discipline that had for its purpose merely the advancement of a party and not of the whole country. Miss Friberg adds that "they felt it incumbent on themselves to strive according to their best ability to restrain the hatred and lust of power which generally prevails within the party lines.

For if the women could not bring some wholly new contribution to the political life,—whether the innermost spirit or the outward forms of this life be concerned,—but should only rally auxiliary forces for the strengthening of the existing parties, then neither they nor mankind would benefit by their interposition. What is most wanted in politics is not an increase in the number of voters merely, but the introduction of independent new forces, of new standards, and new ideals.

It is quite natural that the women should turn their attention primarily to questions concerning their own sex in preparing their

program for the electoral struggle. Revision of the marriage laws, increased protection for minors, the abolition of legalized prostitution, and equitable rights for natural children were some of the measures principally demanded by their leaders, and for the enactment of which the women elected to the Landdag will fight regardless of party lines. At the same time they were very careful, while the nominations were going on, not to make excessive demands, refraining particularly from advocating the candidacy of any woman merely on the ground that she was a woman. "If a man fails, he alone is held responsible for his failure, but in the case of woman her entire sex will be held jointly responsible for her defeat."

It was therefore expected that only about twenty women would be sent into the new Landdag by the electorate, and that these would number among them only women with national reputation. And as all the parties nominated some women, those elected would not be likely to arrange themselves in a group by themselves. Among those nominated and fairly sure of election were Lucina Hagman, a school principal, who fought conspicuously both for national freedom and for woman suffrage; Helena Westermarck, author; Alli Nissinen, school principal, author of many text books and editor of the *Housemother*; Dr. Tekla Hultin, member of the Central Bureau of Statistics; Hedvig Sohlberg, principal of a woman's normal school, lecturer, and prominent advocate of prohibition; Dagmar Neovius, a school teacher, who was among the foremost workers for national independence; Lady Alexandra Gripenberg, a well-known suffragist, and Miina Sillanpää, the president of the Servant Girls' Union. The last named was nominated by the Socialists, but the women of all parties advocated her election on account of her thorough knowledge of conditions among the women of the working class.

The *New York Sun*, commenting on the extension of the suffrage, says:

What makes its experiment in woman suffrage peculiarly important is the fact that it is likely to be taken as a precedent by Russian reformers, among whom the political equality of the sexes has many advocates. We need not say that if woman suffrage were adopted in Russia the movement in favor of such a concession would acquire great momentum in central and western Europe,—especially in Italy and France. The Socialists, who favor woman's rights, are numerous in the two countries just named, as well as in Germany, and they possess more political influence in the Italian and French Chambers of Deputies than they do in the Reichstag.

WRITING BY TELEGRAPH.

ALMOST every one, at some time or other, has written letters of light on the wall of his room by means of a piece of looking-glass, upon which the sunlight was allowed to fall. Imagine yourself, says the Paris correspondent of the *Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam), now to have such a piece of glass in the hand, and that the light of the sun or of a lamp is reflected from this upon the wall. If the hand be kept still the reflection on the wall remains stationary. If the glass be bent forward a line of light will be projected downward upon the wall; if pushed to the right the line will move toward the left.

Now, instead of being held in the hand, let the piece of glass be fixed at a certain point so that by means of small movable rods the forward bending and the same movement to the right can be produced with their corresponding effect in the reflections. Any one can see now that it depends only upon the guiding and directing power by which the two rods are moved simultaneously to cause the reflecting glass to write letters upon the opposite wall. And any one can see, also, that by keeping these rods in contact with two telephone wires along which an electric current can be conducted, a mirror placed, say, at Amsterdam, might be so moved from New York as to write letters upon a wall in the former city.

After stating that the inventor of the so-called "word photography," Dr. Marage, modestly affirmed that his invention was based largely upon the previous invention of telegraphic writing by Pollák and Virág, the writer proceeds:

The invention of Messrs. Pollák and Virág consists of two sets of apparatus, one, let us say, placed at New York, whence to send the two necessary electric currents; the other in Amsterdam, in order, by means of these currents there received, to write characters. The receiving apparatus, placed at Amsterdam, consists of a *camera obscura*, in which are found, at the point where otherwise the lens is placed, the mirror, which can be moved from New York in any direction; at the opposite side, in the usual place in a photographic apparatus, a tightly stretched sensitive paper that can be indefinitely rolled off; below, and between these two, some body capable of giving a powerful light.

A word as to this light-source: That the mirror might not write all the characters on the same spot, the inventors had to discover a means by which from this light, via the mirror, a reflection could be cast which would move constantly along the sensitive paper from left to right, as the hand moves in writing. This result they obtained by placing a glass tube containing electric light

within a larger copper tube which in its circumference has one spiral-formed groove. On turning this copper tube, or cylinder, a ray of light falls upon the mirror from a point lying more toward the side. So that, whenever the mirror is not moved, but the sensitive paper is rolled off and the copper tube turned, a series of lines are formed on the sensitive paper running from left to right. If, at the same time, the mirror is made to move in the required manner, these lines are changed into words, and the apparatus writes entire sentences.

The utility of this invention is shown by the writer's description of the apparatus which transmits the electric current, and which he supposes to be placed at some point in New York.

This apparatus consists of a metal cylindrical drum, through which is carried an electric current. Over this drum runs a strip of parchment paper, profusely perforated, through which perforations the electric current can be made to run to the teeth of a metal comb, pressing firmly upon the paper the conductors of the freed current from the two telegraph wires.

Messrs. Pollák and Virág have invented a perforating machine which vastly increases the rapidity in working the telegraphic instrument. With their system it has been demonstrated that, when the parchment strip is ready, from 32,000 to 50,000 words per hour can be transmitted, while the most rapid system of telegraphy, the Wheatstone, only reached 18,000 per hour. These parchment paper strips can be prepared in the telegraph office by twenty or thirty employees at once, each taking charge of a part of the telegrams; in commercial houses, government bureaus, etc., where, instead of writing down with a pen or typewriting a telegram, it is perforated on the strip. A mercantile house or a newspaper which should hold two telegraph wires of this system for five minutes could in that space of time send along the two wires 2800 words.

Upon this invention, Dr. Marage has based his own invention for the production of the "photographic word." In his apparatus the mirror, instead of being brought into correspondence with two electric currents, is put into connection with a telephone membrane, the vibrations of which are reproduced graphically upon the sensitive paper.

This invention is now being developed by electrical experts everywhere. Already portraits have been "sent" many miles.

ELECTRIC WAVES AND WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY.

WIRELESS, or ethereal, telegraphy is the newest invention of modern physicists. Marconi is generally credited with the first practical illustration of its wonders, although it is quite clear to scientists that many years before Marconi received a wireless message, in 1902, while on the Atlantic, which had been transmitted from his station at Poldhu, Cornwall, Faraday, Clerk Maxwell and Hertz had been experimenting for years with "electric waves." Heinrich Hertz was the first to recognize an electric wave, and the first to construct an instrument to detect it. Essentially, there is no difference between electric waves and light waves. Size is the only distinction. Light waves are so small that many thousands can be packed within the compass of a single inch, while electric waves are so big they may be feet, miles, or even thousands of miles in length. The visual eye is responsive to the small waves but not to the big waves. To recognize them Hertz invented a special instrument.

Newton taught that every self-luminous body emits minute material particles which cause the sensation of light when they fall upon the retina, which is called the "emission theory." Modern scientists hold that light and radiant heat consist of waves in ether. This is termed the wave, or undulatory, theory. Light waves can be reflected, refracted, and polarized, and Hertz established the same properties in invisible electric waves. In the course of his experiments Hertz made the notable discovery that, unlike the more familiar visible waves of light, electric waves pass freely through doors, wooden floors, and even through stone walls and masses of pitch of great thickness, though all these things are practically impenetrable to light. This he established by means of an oscillator and a receiver. These instruments were sixteen or seventeen yards apart and separated by closed doors and, at times, by stone walls. Attached to these were automatic galvanic batteries, and at each oscillation a wave was generated which traveled with the velocity of light to the distant receiver, which was perfectly syntonized. This is the gist of the art of wireless telegraphy: producing electric waves similar to light waves, and detecting them at a distance by means of a tuned or "syntonized" receiver.

Mr. W. A. Shenstone, F.R.S., contributes to the *Cornhill Magazine* for March an exceedingly interesting paper on this subject.

"I need hardly say that it is one thing to detect an electric wave fifteen or twenty yards away from its point of origin," says he, "and quite another thing to detect it after it has traveled scores or perhaps hundreds of miles over land or sea; and when this is done there remain two difficult problems: First, to make the wave print the message it carries in black and white for our eyes to see; and, secondly, to secure that the message shall go into the hands intended to receive it and into no others." Progress in this direction has been greatly stimulated by discoveries of Duddell and Poulsen, the latter an eminent Danish physicist. The former contrived to subject the familiar "electric arc" to perfect control, and the latter, by subjecting it to a powerful magnet, at the same time lengthening it and surrounding it with an atmosphere of the light gas hydrogen, increased the frequency of its oscillations to a million per second.

ADVANTAGES OF "ARC TELEGRAPHY."

Commenting on this remarkable achievement, Mr. Shenstone says:

If Mr. Poulsen's "arc telegraph" can be made a commercial success it may be expected to secure the following advantages: First, greatly increased accuracy in the tuning or syntonizing of transmitters and receivers. This will make it comparatively easy for neighboring stations to avoid interfering with each other's messages and will get rid of, or at any rate mitigate, one of the difficulties which have helped to bring about the need for international conferences and agreements. Secondly, there is good reason to expect that if "arc telegraphy" should replace "spark telegraphy" the energy required for transmitting a message, and therefore its cost, will be considerably reduced. These combined advantages can hardly fail to make easier the realization of that scheme of transatlantic communication, which so often has seemed on the very verge of success, and so often has resulted only in disappointment.

The instrument through which messages are received is termed the "coherer," but it is not entirely trustworthy, and other instruments are frequently employed in its place. In describing what happens at an "electric wave-power station" when a message is dispatched, Mr. Shenstone says:

If you have visited Poldhu, you will remember that it consisted of four great towers, each 225 feet high, which carried an "aerial" of 400 distinct wires. In a building beneath is a great induction coil, for generating sparks, various batteries, condensers, Leyden jars, wires, and a signaling key. When all was ready the signal-

ing key was pressed, and sparks passed across a "spark gap." This formed part of an oscillator of special construction, and at the moment of discharge electric oscillations were set up in this. These oscillations were employed to induce other oscillations in the secondary wire of a coil and in the overhead "aërial," which was connected to one end of this wire, while the other was connected to earth. The electric displacements in or about the "aërial" generated

waves in the ether, and these, traveling with the velocity of light, reached the receiving station in about the one two-thousandth part of a second. Here, falling upon a second "aërial," these waves set up oscillations in the primary wire of a receiving coil; these, in their turn, set up yet fresh oscillations in the secondary wire of the coil, which broke down the resistance of the coherer and started into action a Morse printing machine.

GOOD EYESIGHT AND GOOD HEALTH.

HIGH medical authority asserts that probably one-fourth of all the educated people in America suffer from various kinds of disturbances more or less due to eyestrain, and refers to Carlyle, Huxley, and Wagner, as victims through this cause. Headache, backache, indigestion, hysteria, and even epileptic seizures have been cured by the use of spectacles! Strange though it may seem, a strain upon the small optic muscles is capable of seriously disturbing our whole organism, because of the relation between them and vital parts of the human machine.

"The pictures that are made in our eyes," says Dr. Luther H. Gulick, director of physical training in the New York public schools, in the *World's Work* for March, "and that are always being translated into nerve currents and reported to the brain, form the foundation for our thinking. They constitute a far larger factor of the brain than the mere size of the muscles involved would indicate,—that is, vision is a fundamental activity, and, by interfering with it, many of the other organisms are disturbed. Constant exhaustion and strain of these visual centers will frequently cause disturbances of the most extensive character." This follows because the strain of civilization rests heavier upon the eyes than upon any other organ. The savage does not experience this, because his eyes are used differently. He merely *looks* at things, near or far; the modern man not only *looks*, but also *reads*, and the deterioration of the civilized eye is due to the constant endeavor to distinguish small black marks on white paper. Another difference between the civilized and savage use of the eye: The civilized eye is accustomed to regard things at intervals at long and short range; the savage, usually, enjoys a long focus. The constant employment of the short focus of 15 to 18 inches, by the house-living man, and the occasional use of the long focus of the open are factors in causing eyestrain.

School life, Dr. Gulick contends, is responsible for deformities of the eye, and he startlingly declares that, approximately, one-third of all the children in the upper grades of the elementary schools have eyes that rather seriously need correction by means of spectacles. In cases of headache, backache, interferences with digestion, and nervous exhaustion,—when the symptoms are not clearly traceable,—the eyes should be examined, because they are peculiarly vulnerable, and, hence, must be suspected.

To overcome, or, at least, to minimize the evil effect of reading in street cars, he makes two practical suggestions: (1) Select for reading only books or magazines with clear type, good margins, and lines sufficiently short and far apart so that when the eye travels from the end of one line to the beginning of the next it will not be apt to fall on the wrong place; (2) select reading matter that requires more study than reading,—books that require deliberation, reflection, thinking. Newspaper type is hurtful, but if we must read on the cars, a good plan to relieve the strain is "to look up and off for a moment every little while." Women who read through veils when traveling should give up either the reading or the veils.

Adjusted to outdoor light, which is reflected light, our eyes are injured by direct light. Hence, we should avoid reading or working in a position where a bright light shines directly into the eyes. The pupil of the eye admits light in proportion to the general illumination when that is *reflected*, but cannot contract sufficiently when subjected to one irritating stream of direct light. Lights in a room should be thrown on the ceiling first and reflected therefrom. Light is never safe nor pleasant when one can see its source; hence, when electric bulbs are used, the carbons should not be visible. Bathing the eyes with cold water will greatly relieve fatigue, but the only remedy for strain is to

procure glasses properly adjusted. In conclusion, he says:

Disorders of the eyes not merely affect the rest of the body, but the eyes themselves in many cases act as a sensitive barometer with reference to the conditions of the rest of the

body. People with weak eyes will be far more apt to have eye-pains when they are suffering from indigestion or overwork than when normal conditions of health obtain. . . . Therefore it is most important that people who experience difficulties with their eyes should keep themselves in good general health.

TRACES OF HUMOR IN THE SAYINGS OF JESUS.

THIS most unusual topic is treated at some length in the March number of the *Biblical World* (University of Chicago). The writer of the article, the Rev. Shepherd Knapp, of New York City, finds it almost necessary to apologize for dealing with a theme that has so seldom been discussed by theologians. As he remarks at the outset, to the great mass of Christians it has not even occurred to ask whether Jesus had a sense of humor or not. By many the question, even if raised, would be at once dismissed as trifling or, perhaps, irreverent. This writer, however, enrolls himself among those who think that a sense of humor is a very marked addition to the human character, and who would feel that the life of Jesus was unhappily limited and incomplete if it was all "somber and strenuous."

It should be understood that the word humor is used by Mr. Knapp in a very general sense, including any expression of amusement, any form of pleasantry, any apparent conception of the ludicrous in action or situation or idea,—in short, any genial exercise of imagination. Several characteristics of the recorded words of Jesus would seem to make his possession of a sense of humor quite probable. Imagination, the chief essential of humor, was in him highly developed. He spoke in parables, metaphors, and similes, so that his collected sayings are like a sort of moving picture. Attention is also directed to the homeliness in many of his imaginative expressions that would provide "excellent raw material for humor when needed." These traits, taken together with that quickness of action and conversation of which a good example is the use by Jesus of the image and superscription on the penny when asked about the lawfulness of giving tribute, go to show that the possession of the sense of humor would not be in any way unnatural or abnormal in such a character.

Humor as an element in Christ's sayings is to be looked for in two different forms: On the one hand, it may be literary in character, dependent on the contrast of ideas put

forth by the speaker, or on his manner of describing persons or events. On the other, it may be humor of situation, dependent upon a relation between the words spoken and that which is going on at the time of their utterance, especially in the minds of the listeners.

Of the literary humor Mr. Knapp finds the clearest examples in Christ's words in the form of exaggeration. The parable of the mote and the beam (Matt. 7:4) is a famous instance.

A more elaborate instance of literary humor is the delightful little glimpse that Jesus gives us of children at their games in the marketplace: "We piped unto you and ye did not dance; we wailed and ye did not mourn" (Matt. 11:17). It is the last clause that causes or ought to cause a smile: "We wailed and ye did not mourn," or, more literally, "did not beat your breasts." Read this *seriously*, and you have before you an inexplicable group of people, manifestly grown up,—not children at all,—who solemnly charge one another with lack of sympathy. But the scene that Jesus really drew was what a modern child would call "playing funeral"; only in the Palestine of Jesus' day the customs of mourning offered a much more fertile field for the heartless imitation of children than is the case with us. "Don't you know," says one child to the other, "that unless you beat your breast when I begin to wail, you spoil the whole game?" I think this passage alone would assure us that Jesus was not ignorant of the manner in which humor may be put to use.

The one remaining instance of this literary humor that I shall produce is also an illustration of the fact that the humor in Christ's sayings is sometimes so plain as barely to need to be pointed out. In the parable of the Excuses (Luke 14:16-23) I suppose that the pleas offered by the three men for not attending the great supper to which they had been invited, and especially that of the last one, have often struck many of us as distinctly funny; they seem so much like the modern attempts to get out of an inconvenient engagement: "I have bought a field and must needs go and see it"; "I have bought five yoke of oxen and I go to prove them"; "I have married a wife and therefore I cannot come." All this we should be sure was humorous if it was not in the gospel. But it is humorous, whether in the gospel or out of it. For my part, I have at least little doubt that, when Jesus first made this graphic reference to the much-married man, some one among the auditors, who was known to walk

in matrimonial leading-strings, was nudged or clapped on the back by his companions.

Of the second group of illustrations, the instances of humorous situations arising from Christ's words, Mr. Knapp cites the parables of the patched garment and the new wine in old wine-skins (Mark 2:21 f.), and the discourse at the chief Pharisee's table

(Luke 14:7-24). In the latter passage it is noted that single phrases and terms of expression betray a humorous vein, as when Christ says: "In giving a dinner or a supper do not invite your friends or your brethren or your rich neighbors, lest haply they bid you again" (Luke 14:12). Similar instances might be multiplied.

BRAIN-WEIGHT AND INTELLIGENCE.

IT is impossible to conceive of many of our psychic manifestations except as associated with special organs of the body. For instance, the simple sensation of sight is possible only when a certain definite part of the brain,—i.e., the occipital lobes,—is in a normal condition. Many instances of this sort give evidence that a part, at least, of our psychic manifestations are bound up with processes whose course runs parallel with certain bodily developments, and doubtless our constantly increasing knowledge of the science of physiological psychology will disclose many more relations of this sort than are yet known.

The very interesting question arises as to the relation between mind and matter, between the intangible and the tangible, the possibilities of which have never yet been fully exploited.

Whether there is a relation between unusual brain-weight and exceptional intelligence, and to what extent such a relation may exist, are questions as interesting as they are difficult to answer.

Dr. Johannes Dräseke writes on the subject in the last number of the *Archiv für Rassen- und Gesellschaft-Biologie* (Berlin).

Have the marked intellectual powers of noted men been correlated with the increased metabolic activity of an unusually large brain mass? Study of the brains themselves ought to give direct evidence on the question, and with this end in view the writer ascertained the weights of the brains of a large number of famous men.

Thackeray is cited as dying at the age of 52, and having a brain weight of 1658 g.; Helmholtz, the noted physicist of Berlin, who died at 73, had a brain-weight of 1420 g., the same as that of Schubert, the musical composer, who died at 31. Goltz, a leading physiologist, died at 68, and had a brain-weight of 1395 g. Louis Agassiz, the naturalist, had a brain-weight of 1495 g. at the age of 66. Turgenjeff, the Russian novelist,

dying at 65 years of age, showed a brain-weight of 2012 g., while Walt Whitman, who died at 72, had a brain-weight of 1282 g.

It is extremely difficult to get data for studying the relation between brain-weight and intelligence in normally intelligent men on account of the obstacles in the way of examining brains, due to the inherent prejudice against such treatment of the dead.

The same methods have been used in the attempt to discover whether the brain is different in primitive and in cultured races.

A Russian surgeon weighed the brains of 500 Slavs, and found the average weight to be 1409 g., comparing favorably with the brain-weights given of famous men.

Although the natives of Tierra del Fuego are considered as belonging to one of the lowest races of mankind, two brains examined showed no lower structure than brains of other races, and the one brain-weight given of this race was 1403 g. Examination of a Papuan brain showed nothing in the system of convolutions and sulci that was in the slightest degree different from the European brain. There was a suspicion that these brains had undergone some change before they were examined, on account of the readiness with which nerve tissue absorbs moisture and so increases in weight.

On the whole, it seems probable that there is a relation between higher intelligence and increased brain-weight, although it is difficult to determine just how closely the two are correlated, for the fact must not be lost sight of that a great part of the energy of the brain must be spent in controlling growth and the vital activities of the body, as well as the infinite variety of muscular movements. Further disturbing factors enter into the problem from the uncertain matter as to what proportion of the brain is active nerve substance and what part is inactive tissue serving to support and protect the rest.

FOUR CENTURIES OF BOOK PRICES.

THE controversy between the London *Times* and the London publishers, recently exploited at length in Labouchere's London *Truth*, from the viewpoint of that lively and aggressive English periodical, hinges on the refusal of the *Times* to accept the trade terms offered by publishers for supply of books to members of the *Times* Book Club, an organization conducted under *Times* auspices, and having as one reason for its existence the purchasing of books at prices below the publishers' normal retail rates.

The English reading classes are taking immense interest in this semi-literary, semi-commercial conflict, which has been raging, with considerable activity on both sides, during the last three months. Incidentally, the discussion in a general way of book prices has been revived as one result of the still-existing differences of opinion between the most famous English newspaper and a group of the most famous English publishers.

An article by A. W. Pollard in the *Cornhill Magazine* deals interestingly with "Four Centuries of Book Prices," going over the ground of current values in rare and other books, from the days of Robert Copland, bookseller, who was the first native Englishman to take up the printing art in England, after Caxton's death.

The penny, or penny, in Copland's day, was worth the shilling of to-day. This should be kept in mind when comparing book prices, past and present. The value of money having changed during each century of England's literary history, it is not always possible to tell accurately what current values were at any given time. It is definitely known, however, that a hundred years ago, incomes were equal in worth to twice their nominal values at the present day. That fact can be used as a guide. Incomes of 200 years ago were worth about five times what they represent in the coinage and currency of 1907. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries,—the days of Copland and his immediate successors in the field of printing, publishing, and bookselling,—money was worth fully ten or twelve times what it represents in this, the twentieth century, and possessed a much greater purchasing power.

Some idea of what could be purchased in the way of literary wares for a "penny" or thereabouts can be gained from the following quaint description:

Had Copland's visitor gone to John Dorne's shop (Dorne was a famous sixteenth century bookseller) he could have found quite a variety of other literature for his penny maximum. If he desired history he might buy the "*Cronica Angliæ*," two quarto sheets containing the names of British and English kings, the former mostly imaginary. If a student of geography, he might have invested in a little tract, "*Of the newe fonde land*," an exceptionally good pennyworth, if it be rightly identified with the pamphlet printed at Antwerp by John of Doesborg, "*Of the newe landes and of the people found by the messengers of the Kynge of portyngale named Emanuel*," for this contains no fewer than twenty-four leaves. If he cared for such plays as were then in fashion, he could have bought the interlude of St. John Evangelist, apparently the same work of which an edition printed about 1560 sold at Sotheby's last year for £102. In religious poetry a choice was offered between a "*Lamentation of Our Lady*," "*A Complaint of St. Magdalen*," and a variety of Christmas carols; in hagiology between lives of St. Erasmus, St. Roche, and St. Barbara.

Mr. Pollard failed to find, in Dorne's day-book, particulars as to price of Pynson's *editis princeps* of Lord Berners' translation of Froissart, published about 1523. The Pynson edition of Chaucer's poetry and Chaucer's "*Canterbury Tales*" were also missing. Others not in the list were "*Remyll of the History of Troy*,"—the first English book printed; the "*Dicts and Sayings of the Philosophers*,"—the first dated book printed in England, and Melory's "*Morte d'Arthur*." The Great Bible, the possession of which was ordered, in 1541, for every parish church in England, was sold at 10 shillings in sheets or 12 shillings, bound. The Second Prayer Book of Edward VI. sold, by order, at 2 shillings and 6 pence in quires; in parchment, 3 shillings and 4 pence; in leather, clasped or paper boards, 4 shillings. The current price of the First Folio. Shakespeare was, according to the best information obtainable, £1. Nearly half a century later, in 1668, the first edition of Milton's "*Paradise Lost*" was sold at 3 shillings.

In 1697 Dryden's "*Virgil*" was published by subscription at £5. This, however, was probably a complimentary price in honor of the writer or to befriend him. Two thousand copies of the same writer's "*Miscellany Poems*" were sold at 2 guineas. Eighteenth century prices were not very different, all things considered, from those of to-day. Early in that period it became customary to charge 2s. 6d. a volume for novels.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

One of the most fascinating bits of historical interpretation we have read for some time is Mr. J. Ellis Barker's "Rise and Decline of the Netherlands" (Dutton). This author, who is well known as an English essayist and writer for the English reviews, presents in this volume a political and economic history and a study in practical statesmanship. In the actual historical fate of the Netherlands he sees the potential destiny of Great Britain. In the eyes of the Dutch all through their career, he says, "commerce was more important than statesmanship; wealth was better than the manly virtues which are usually summed up in the word 'patriotism'; and administrative anarchy, called individualism, was better than national union and national organization. . . . Unless Great Britain and the British colonies be soon organized and united in accordance with modern requirements, the history of the Netherlands may repeat itself, and Great Britain may lose her power, her colonies, her industries, her trade, her shipping, and her wealth to other nations."

Eugénie de Montijo, Spanish beauty of Scotch ancestry, Empress of the French, exile, and "the most interesting widow in Christendom,"—how much has been written which is yet unsatisfactory about this remarkably fascinating figure! Among the latest efforts which hold the attention is Jane T. Stoddart's "Life of the Empress Eugénie" (Dutton), which has just gone through its third edition. The work is illustrated with photogravure portraits, reproductions of famous paintings. The one we reproduce is from the Winterhalter painting, now in the Augustin Rischgitz collection. With reference to the one dark page in the Empress' life history, the writer of this work says in her preface: "The writers of defamatory pamphlets accusing Eugénie of being the author of the Franco-Prussian War, with all their malice, have not succeeded in fastening any personal charge upon Napoleon's consort, and most of them display a surprising ignorance of the facts of her career."

Mr. Stead's book on the conflict between the Lords and the Commons, referred to in our editorial department last month, is not only a history of the contest between the two houses of the British Parliament. It furnishes, also, a suggestion as to how the Lords can be "mended." The book, which is entitled "Peers or People? An Appeal to History" (T. Fisher Unwin), is divided into three parts, entitled respectively: (1) "The Lords versus the Nation," (2) "What the House of Lords Has Done," and (3) "What Must Be Done with the House of Lords." Mr. Stead's general suggestion is that the hereditary chamber of the British Parliament be replaced by some sort of senate which would be more responsive to popular will.



THE EMPRESS EUGÉNIE.
(After Winterhalter.)

In the series "Original Narratives of Early American History," reproduced under the auspices of the American Historical Association and under the general editorship of Dr. J. Franklin Jameson (Carnegie Institute, Washington), Scribners have just brought out "Early English and French Voyages,—1534 to 1608." This volume, with maps, has been edited chiefly from Hakluyt by Dr. Henry S. Burrage, of the Maine Historical Society.

"In the Path of the Alphabet," by Frances D. Jermain, is a historical account of the ancient beginnings and evolution of our modern alphabet. It was prepared by the author during her twenty-five years at the head of the Toledo Public Library, and is published at Fort Wayne, Ind., by William D. Page.

How far the dramatic profession has advanced beyond the position occupied by even the best of its members two centuries ago is strikingly shown in John Fyvie's "Comedy Queens of the Georgian Era" (Dutton). This volume is a series of biographical sketches of some of the most prominent English comedy actresses during the time of the Georges. Portraits of most of the characters considered complete the book.

In a historical biography entitled "A Revolutionary Princess" (Dutton), H. Remsen Whitehouse has given us the history of Italy from 1808 to 1871 while telling the life story of Christina Belgiojoso-Trivulzio. The volume is illustrated.

The first volume of Dr. Russell Sturgis' finely illustrated, comprehensive "History of Architecture" (Baker Taylor) treats of the period of antiquity. The period extends from the days of early Egypt to those of Rome under Caracalla.

In the "Heroes of American History" series (Harpers), Frederick A. Ober has given us "Amerigo Vespucci." The story is told in an entertaining way from original, authentic documents, and is illustrated with portraits and maps.



AMERIGO VESPUCCI.

"Famous Actor Families in America," by Montrose J. Moses (Crowell), contains entertaining biographical sketches of the Booths, the Jeffersons, the Sothers, the Boucicaults, the Hacketts, the Drews, the Barrymores, the Wallacks, the Davenports, the Hollands, and the Powers, with many references to other American and English families well known to the stage. Veteran playgoers will be particularly interested in Mr. Moses' studies of these various family trees, and those who wish to pursue the subject further will find in the bibliographical notes at the end of the volume many valuable references.

Volumes IV. and V. of J. A. Doyle's "English Colonies in America" (Holt) are devoted respectively to the middle colonies and the colonies under the house of Hanover. The completion of these volumes advances the history to the middle of the eighteenth century and the beginning of those disputes which ended in the separation of the colonies from the mother country.

SCIENCE AND PHILOSOPHY.

The scholarly and versatile editor of *La Revue*, of Paris, has just brought out his study of "Race Prejudice," the English translation of which has been published in London and imported by the Duttons. M. Finot argues for

international peace and fraternity and endeavors to find argument and reason for universal brotherhood in the underlying principles and traits of our common humanity. He has considered the points of difference between races and the causes which have led to racial prejudice. The term "race," he declares, is only a product of our mental activities, "the work of our intellect and outside of reality." It is possible, he stoutly maintains in conclusion, to build "on the ruins of the falsehood of races solidarity and true equality, founded on a rational sentiment of respect for human dignity."

When Mark Twain discusses a subject, be it a new religion or an old historic myth, he always illuminates it and makes it vivid in all its phases. In his recent volume on "Christian Science" (Harpers) he has given us the result of years of careful investigation of Mrs. Eddy's cult and writings and of the church which she has founded. In this book Mr. Clemens has endeavored "earnestly to answer impartially those questions which the public generally have been asking about Christian Science." Much of the material was written five or six years ago, but the whole, he informs us, has been revised thoroughly, and the few original "errors of judgment and of fact," corrected "to the best of my ability and later knowledge." It has been "my honest purpose," says Mr. Clemens, "to present a character-portrait of Mrs. Eddy, drawn from her own acts and words solely, not from hearsay and rumor; and to explain the nature and scope of her monarchy, as revealed in the laws by which she governs it, and which she wrote herself."

No doubt the highest living authority on Mars and things Martian is Prof. Percival Lowell, director of the observatory at Flagstaff, Ariz., and astronomical investigator and writer known over the entire world. Professor Lowell's book, "Mars and Its Canals" (Macmillan), is the final word, up to the present, on the planet and what we know of it. All the different theories,—and there are many,—as to the genesis, development, and possible uses of the canal system of the planet Mars are treated, and the volume is copiously illustrated from photographs by the author. Professor Lowell's most significant conclusion is found in this sentence: "To find, therefore, upon Mars highly intelligent life is what that planet's state would lead one to expect."

A remarkably fair and conservative study of the subject of psychic phenomena, with citations of a number of noteworthy experiences, is Dr. I. K. Funk's recently issued little volume, "The Psychic Riddle" (Funk & Wagnalls Company). Dr. Funk's contributions to modern scholarship, including, as they do, the Standard Dictionary (of which he was editor-in-chief) and other works on the general subject of psychic manifestations, are guaranties of the care and intellectual honesty with which he approaches this fascinating but little known field of human research. While not himself a spiritualist in any sense recognized by that term, Dr. Funk asserts that he is "deeply interested in psychic research, because it seems more and more likely that by these efforts may be discovered marvelous powers of the human soul not yet fully recognized by the science of psychology, as telepathy,

clairvoyance, prescience, secondary personalities, cure of disease by hypnotic suggestion, etc., and by them also much new light may be thrown upon many forms of insanity."

"Our Children," by Dr. Paul Carus, editor of the *Open Court* (published by his own company in Chicago), includes a series of essays on the care and education of our little folks, written in thought-provoking style. The book contains many hints from practical experience.

It was an ambitious task to collate all the data upon and interpret the growth of the human race's knowledge of the world in which it lives. This, however, has been done in coherent, entertaining style by Mr. Carl Snyder in his book just brought out by Longmans, entitled "The World Machine" (the first of a proposed series of three). This work is really a history of philosophy and an interpretation of the philosophy of history. Perhaps the gist of the entire volume may be found in the following paragraph: "Thanks to five or ten thousand years, perhaps a still greater period, of tolerably connected and consecutive effort, there has been built up a considerable stock of knowledge which, deftly fitted together in an orderly way, has become our one sure guide in this weird journey through the wilderness. Supported by this slowly wrought fabric of fact and logical theory, it is possible now to give at least a partial answer to some of the primitive human problems. Relative to the rest of the cosmos, we know to some extent what we are, we know to some extent where we are, we have some slight idea as to whence we have come, we are beginning to perceive dimly whither we are going."

POLITICS, LAW, AND BUSINESS.

In the "American State" series (Century) Prof. Paul S. Reinsch, of the University of Wisconsin, contributes a volume on "American

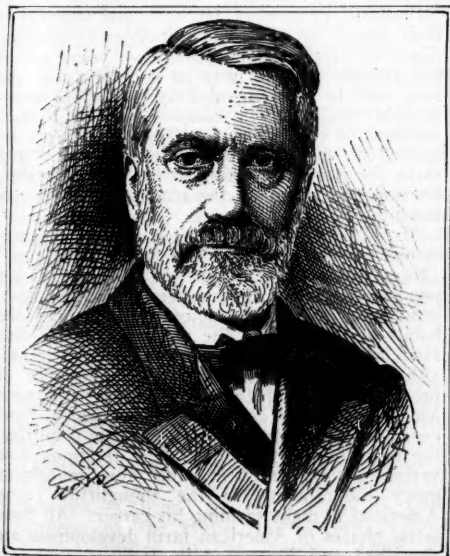


CARL SNYDER.

Legislatures and Legislative Methods." In this work Professor Reinsch not only gives a description of the manner in which our lawmaking bodies, both State and federal, do their work, but he also discusses at some length the various forms of what he terms the perversion of legislative action,—for example, the development and organization of the lobby, the growth of the bosses, legislative blackmail, and the abuse of the committee system. In short, Professor Reinsch's method of treatment is frankly critical and is concerned with the exact manner in which the legislative bodies perform their functions, rather than with their purely constitutional powers. The first chapter of the volume, dealing with the constitutional framework of congressional government, is the work of Prof. Bernard C. Steiner, of the Johns Hopkins University.

"Act of State in English Law" is the somewhat obscure title of an English law treatise by W. Harrison Moore (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.), which deals with the relations between states, and therefore belongs to the province of international law. The work is of special value as tracing the development of a system of international law from the viewpoint of English history.

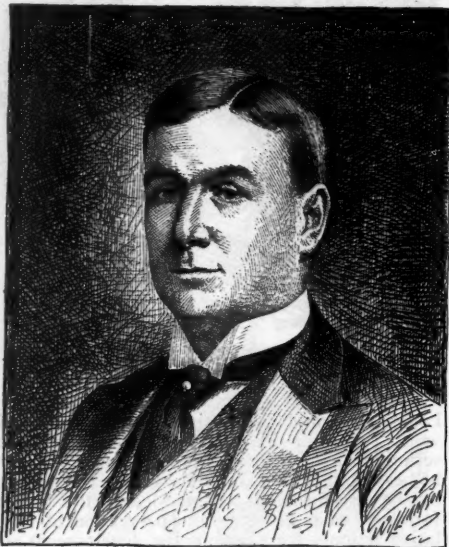
A well-known New York lawyer, Mr. John R. Dos Passos, has developed certain interesting reflections on his own profession under the title "The American Lawyer: As He Was,—As He Is,—As He Can Be" (New York: The Banks Law Publishing Company). In this work Mr. Dos Passos discusses in broad outline what he conceives to be the real mission of the lawyer in society, his relation to the government of which he is a citizen, and his clearly defined duties in that relation. It is strange that this side of the lawyer's life has been apparently neglected heretofore in most of the books written with a view to expounding the ethics of the pro-



DR. I. K. FUNK.

fession. Mr. Dos Passos has approached the subject from a wholly new point of view.

An American edition of Kenny's "Outlines of Criminal Law," a standard English work on the subject, has been prepared by Mr. James H. Webb, of the law department at Yale University (Macmillan). The advantages of an American revision of this work for the use of American students and general readers are quite obvious,



ARTHUR TRAIN.

since the English edition devotes much attention to modern English statutes and rules which do not obtain in the United States. Mr. Webb eliminated from the present edition those portions of the original text that are not authoritative in the United States. It is hoped that this work will prove to be of more interest and value than the usual legal textbook, even to those American students and readers who are not pursuing technical law courses. The subject of criminal law in this country has been unduly neglected by students of our social system.

Mr. Arthur Train, a member of District Attorney Jerome's staff, in New York, whose short stories based on his official experiences and observations have delighted thousands of magazine readers, has attempted, in an entertaining volume entitled "The Prisoner at the Bar" (Scribners), to describe the administration of criminal justice in a series of graphic illustrations. Mr. Train's chapters are intended chiefly for the layman and are so constructed as to give a clear insight into the actual processes of our criminal courts. The chapters on "The Law's Delays" and "Red Tape" relate in an amusing manner the experiences of a substantial citizen of New York in his first contact with the machinery of the police courts. One totally unfamiliar with court procedure might gain from a perusal of these chapters more definite information than would be afforded by a whole library of technical law books.

In the Citizen's Library (Macmillan) Dr. Samuel E. Sparling, of the University of Wisconsin, writes "An Introduction to Business Organization," covering the most important phases of farm, factory, and commercial organization generally, and devoting considerable attention to such practical topics as the mail-order business, advertising, credits, and collections. It is indicative of the larger place that business institutions and operations are taking in schemes of university instruction that this little book is the outgrowth of a course of lectures delivered at the University of Wisconsin in connection with the courses in commerce.

A series of pamphlets dealing with the probable effect on the securities of the coal-carrying railroads of the separation of railroad and coal properties required by the new rate law has recently been issued (New York: Half-Hourly News Service, 99 Nassau street). The writer of these pamphlets is optimistic as to the ultimate results to be expected from the full operation of the new law, and the general effect of his discussion is to reassure the stockholders of these properties and to furnish a basis for confidence in the future of the several railroads involved. The conclusions drawn are evidently the result of a scientific study of the subject, and in presenting them much valuable information concerning the financial condition of the coal roads is incidentally set forth.

Mr. T. E. Young, an experienced actuary, has written a treatise on "Insurance,—A Practical Exposition for the Student and Business Man" (New York: Isaac Pitnam & Sons). This work is designed pre-eminently for the insurance expert and accountant. It is a scientific analysis and review of the whole system of modern insurance.

AGRICULTURE AND HORTICULTURE.

Mr. Charles L. Goodrich's "First Book of Farming" (Doubleday, Page & Co.) is a helpful adjunct to farmers, teachers, and students in their search for the basic principles of farming. Since its original publication, two years ago, it has steadily won its way in popular favor and may now be recommended as one of the indispensable books of its class. It is not a mere textbook of abstract truth. The experiments described at various points in the text not only make the work interesting to the general reader, but serve to stimulate the student to investigate for himself.

Mr. T. Byard Collins has written an interesting volume entitled "The New Agriculture" (New York: Munn & Co.), in which he gives a popular outline of the changes which are revolutionizing the methods of farming and the habits of farm life. The writer maintains that farm life was never so attractive as it is to-day, although he admits that present methods of production and distribution outside the farm leave much to be desired. On the whole, however, he finds in the new soil, the new fertilizing, the new transportation, the new creations, new varieties, new practices, and new machinery many inducements to the thoughtful young American to make farming his career. All these latest phases of American farm development are described and illustrated in detail.

The French Garden City Association, which includes in its activities almost all the phases

of civic betterment agitated for by our own civic improvement associations, has just brought out a book by M. Georges Benoit-Levy, its director, in which the work and aim of the association are set forth in the form of a pleasing romance. This is entitled "*Le Roman des Cités-Jardins*," and is illustrated from original photographs, most of them taken by the author himself. The portrait of M. Benoit-Levy which we reproduce in this connection is from a photograph taken during his visit, a year or so ago, to the scene of the mining disaster at Courrières in Northern France.

A little volume of really useful hints about gardens and how to make them beautiful and individual is "*The Garden and Its Accessories*" (Little, Brown), by Loring Underwood. It is illustrated from photographs, chiefly by the author.

REFERENCE BOOKS.

The London "*Who's Who*," which is revised annually, now contains numerous sketches of eminent Americans. In this country, however, it is chiefly used as a serviceable reference book to answer the questions that continually arise in the newspaper and magazine office concerning distinguished British personalities who are now living, and hence have not attained the dignity of treatment in the national dictionary of reference. "*Who's Who*," which is now in its fifty-ninth year of issue, contains nearly 2000 closely printed pages of contemporary biography.

"*The Copper Handbook* (vol. VI.) for 1906," by Horace J. Stevens, has just appeared. This volume covers the entire subject of copper, its history, biography, metallurgy, finances, and statistics. It is the final word upon the subject in all its multitude phases. The frankness, honesty, and sincerity of the comments on copper-producing mines is perhaps the most valuable characteristic of the book, although the typographical arrangement is unusually helpful in making the contents accessible. It is published by the author at Houghton, Mich.

We have also received "*The Municipal Year-book of the United Kingdom for 1907*," edited by Robert Donald, editor of the *Municipal Journal* and the *London Manual*. This volume is published by Edward Lloyd, at the offices of the *Municipal Journal*, in London.

A volume on "*Costume: Fanciful, Historical, and Theatrical*," compiled by Mrs. Aria and copiously illustrated in color by Percy Anderson, has appeared from the press of Macmillan.

A handy, useful little volume by Henry Gannett is entitled "*The Statistical Abstract of the World*" (John Wiley).

VARIOUS TIMELY DISCUSSIONS.

Four English books, treating as many different phases of physical and mental hygiene in its national aspects (all imported by Dutton), are: "*The Hygiene of Mind*," by Dr. T. S. Clouston, lecturer on mental diseases at the University of Edinburgh; "*The Control of a Scourge,—Cancer*," by Dr. Charles P. Childe, surgeon of the Royal Portsmouth Hospital; "*The Children of the Nation*" (how their health and vigor should be promoted by the state), by the Rt. Hon. Sir John E. Gorst; and



GEORGES BENOIT-LEVY.

"*Infant Mortality,—A Social Problem*," by Dr. George Newman, lecturer on public health at St. Bartholomew's Hospital, London.

A collection of the "*Reflections and Observations of Men and Events Not Included in Poor Richard's Almanac*," but which nevertheless contain much of "the wisdom of Benjamin Franklin," has been brought out by Brentanos. To this collection Mr. John J. Murphy has written an introduction.

In "*Boy Wanted*" (Forbes & Co.), Nixon Waterman has given some cheerful counsel to boys of all ages.

A little drama based on the historic incident of Captain John Smith and Pocahontas, intended to be used as an explanatory note to the literature about the coming Jamestown Exposition, has been issued, under the title "*Pocahontas*," by the Universal Publishing Company, at Normal, Ill. Its authorship is ascribed to a "prominent writer," who signs himself "*Tecumtha*."

"*Night and Morning*," by Katrina Trask (John Lane), is a dramatic poem dealing with the modern problem of marriage in a new and original way.

Two more of the excellently edited musical scores being brought out in the Musicians' Library by Oliver Ditson & Co. are: "*Thirty Piano Compositions by Felix Mendelssohn*" (edited by Percy Goetschius, with a preface by Daniel Gregory Mason), and "*Fifty Shakespeare Songs*" (compiled and edited for high voice by Charles Vincent).

OTHER BOOKS RECEIVED.

- Abelard and Heloise. By Ridgely Torrence. Scribners.
- Addresses of John Hay. Century Company.
- Argumentation. An Introductory Course in. By Frances M. Perry. American Book Company.
- As You Like It. Edited by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke. Crowell.
- Atonement in Literature and Life. By Charles A. Dinsmore. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
- Behavior of the Lower Organisms. By H. S. Jennings. Macmillan.
- Behold the Christ in Every One. By Celestia R. Lang, 4109 Vincennes avenue, Chicago.
- Benigna Vena. By Michael Monahan, 100 East Fifteenth street, New York.
- Betterment: Individual, Social, and Industrial. By E. Wake Cook. Stokes.
- Borderland of Psychical Research. By James H. Hyslop. Turner.
- Bridge Blue Book, The. By Paul F. Mottelay. Scribners.
- Canada Year Book, 1905, The. Census and Statistics Office, Ottawa.
- Capt'n Chadwick. By John W. Chadwick. American Unitarian Association, Boston.
- Cause of Geological Climates, The. By C. A. M. Taber, Wakefield, Mass.
- China and Methodism. By James W. Bashford. Jennings & Graham.
- Christ and the Human Race. By Charles Cuthbert Hall. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
- Cigarettes in Fact and Fancy. By John Bain, Jr. H. M. Caldwell Co.
- Cities. By Arthur Symons. Dutton.
- Concepts of Philosophy. By A. T. Ormond. Macmillan.
- Criminal Prosecution and Capital Punishment of Animals, The. By E. P. Evans. Dutton.
- Dalton's Complete Bridge. Frederick A. Stokes Company, New York.
- Daughter of the Gods, A. By Lea Donald. The Grafton Press, New York.
- Eating to Live. By John J. Black, M.D. Lippincott.
- Ecclesiastes in the Metre of Omar. By William B. Forbush. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
- Elementary English Composition. By Tuley F. Huntington. Macmillan.
- English Literature from the Norman Conquest to Chaucer. Dr. William H. Schofield. Macmillan.
- Essay on the Creative Imagination. By Th. Ribot. Open Court Publishing Company, Chicago.
- Eternal Life. By William Parker, Pittsburgh, Pa.
- Every-day Ethics. By Ella Lyman Cabot. Holt.
- Every-Day Living. By Annie Payson Call. Stokes.
- Every Man a King. By Orison Swett Marden. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.
- First Steps in Mental Growth. By Dr. David R. Major. Macmillan.
- Foibles of the Bar. By Henry S. Wilcox. Legal Literature Company, Chicago.
- Food Materials and Their Adulterations. By Ellen H. Richards. Whitcomb & Barrows, Boston.
- Forty Lessons in Physics. By Lynn B. McMullen. Holt.
- Four American Leaders. By Charles W. Elliot. American Unitarian Association.
- From Barbarism to Socialism. By W. C. Bowman. The Caxton Press, Los Angeles.
- From Dream to Vision of Life. By Lillian Whiting. Little, Brown.
- God's Acre. Dr. James Burrell. Tiffany Studios, New York.
- Golden Rule, Jones, Mayor of Toledo. By Ernest Crosby. The Public Publishing Company, Chicago.
- Gospel According to the Enemy, The. By T. Newton Owen. E. B. Treat & Co., New York.
- Great Iniquity, A. By Leo Tolstoy. The Public Publishing Company, Chicago.
- Henry the Fifth. Edited by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke. Crowell.
- How to Speak in Public. By Grenville Kleiser. Funk & Wagnalls.
- Hudson's Essays on English Studies. Edited by A. J. George. Ginn.
- Hundred Years Hence, A. By T. Baron Russell. McClurg.
- Hundredth Century Philosophy. By Charles K. Wheeler, Boston.
- Incubator Baby, The. By Ellis Parker Butler. Funk & Wagnalls.
- Interpretation of Nature, The. By C. Lloyd Morgan. Putnam.
- King's Daughters' Year Book. By Margaret Bottomo. Henry Altman Company, Philadelphia.
- Lanier, Sidney. By Henry Nelson Snyder. Eaton & Mains.
- Legend of St. Juliana. Translated by C. W. Kennedy, Princeton University Library.
- Letters of a Business Woman to Her Niece. By Caroline A. Hull. R. F. Fenno & Co., New York.
- Letters on Evangelism. By Edwin H. Hughes. Jennings & Graham.
- Little Journeys to the Homes of Great Reformers: John Wesley. By Elbert Hubbard. The Roycrofters, Aurora, N. Y.
- Looking Forward. By August Cirkel. The Looking Forward Publishing Company, Chicago.
- Lowell. By William A. Quayle. Eaton & Mains.
- Lucian, Selected Writings. By Francis G. Allinson. Ginn.
- Making of a Merchant, The. By Harlow N. Higinbotham. Forbes & Co., Chicago.
- Making of Simon Peter, The. By Albert James Southouse. Jennings & Graham.
- Making of the World, The. By Dr. M. Wilhelm Meyer. Charles H. Kerr & Co., Chicago.
- Masters of Fate, The. By Sophia P. Shaler. Duffield & Co.
- Methodist Year Book, 1907, The. Edited by Stephen V. R. Ford. Eaton & Mains, New York.
- Moral Social. By Eugenio M. de Hostos. Bailly-Bailliere & Hijos, Madrid.
- New Art of an Ancient People, The. By M. S. Levasseur. B. W. Huebsch, New York.
- Odds and Ends from Pagoda Land. By Dr. William C. Griggs. American Baptist Publication Society, Philadelphia.
- Organic Evolution: A Sketch. By Anna Augusta Gaskell, 3112 Prairie avenue, Chicago.
- Our Old Home. By Nathaniel Hawthorne. Crowell.
- Parental Rights and Economic Wrongs. By Virginia M. Butterfield. Stockham Publishing Company, Chicago.
- Parrots and Other Talking Birds. By Charles N. Page, Des Moines, Ia.
- Philosophy of Goethe's "Faust." By Thomas Davidson. Ginn & Co.
- Physical Basis of Mind and Morals, The. By M. H. Fitch. Charles H. Kerr & Co., Chicago.
- Pilgrims' Way, The. By A. T. Quiller-Couch. Dutton.
- Poetry of Chaucer, The. By Robert Kilburn Root. Houghton, Mifflin.
- Politics of Utility, The. By James Mackaye. Little, Brown & Co.
- Positive Outcome of Philosophy, The. By Joseph Dietzgen. Charles H. Kerr & Co.
- Practical Zoology. By Alvin Davison. American Book Company.
- Principles of Secondary Education. By Charles De Garmo. Macmillan.
- Putting the Most Into Life. By Booker T. Washington. Crowell.
- Reason in Architecture. By T. G. Jackson. Dutton.
- Rebel at Large, The. By May Beals. Charles H. Kerr & Co.
- Rhetoric and Composition. By Dr. Edward Fulton. Holt.
- S'Ancre. By Ibbie Raymond.
- School and Its Life, The. By C. B. Gilbert. Silver, Burdett & Co.
- Selections from Addison. By Edward Bliss Reed. Holt.
- Self-Interpretation of Jesus Christ, The. By G. S. Streafeld. Jennings & Graham.
- Sermons of a Buddhist Abbot. By Soyen Shaku. Open Court Publishing Company, Chicago.
- Slovaks of Hungary, The. By Thomas Capek. Knickerbocker Press.
- Some Ideals of Alfred Tennyson. By William Clark Gordon. University of Chicago Press.
- Viscous versus the Granular Theory of Glacial Motion, The. By Oswin W. Wilcox, Long Branch, N. J.
- Walt Whitman: A Study. By John Addington Symonds. Dutton.
- Warrior Spirit in the Republic of God, The. By Anna Robertson Brown Lindsay. Macmillan.
- Wesley's Journal, John. Jennings & Graham, Cincinnati.
- What Marjorie Saw Abroad. By Mrs. David Gamble Murrell. Neale Publishing Company, Washington.

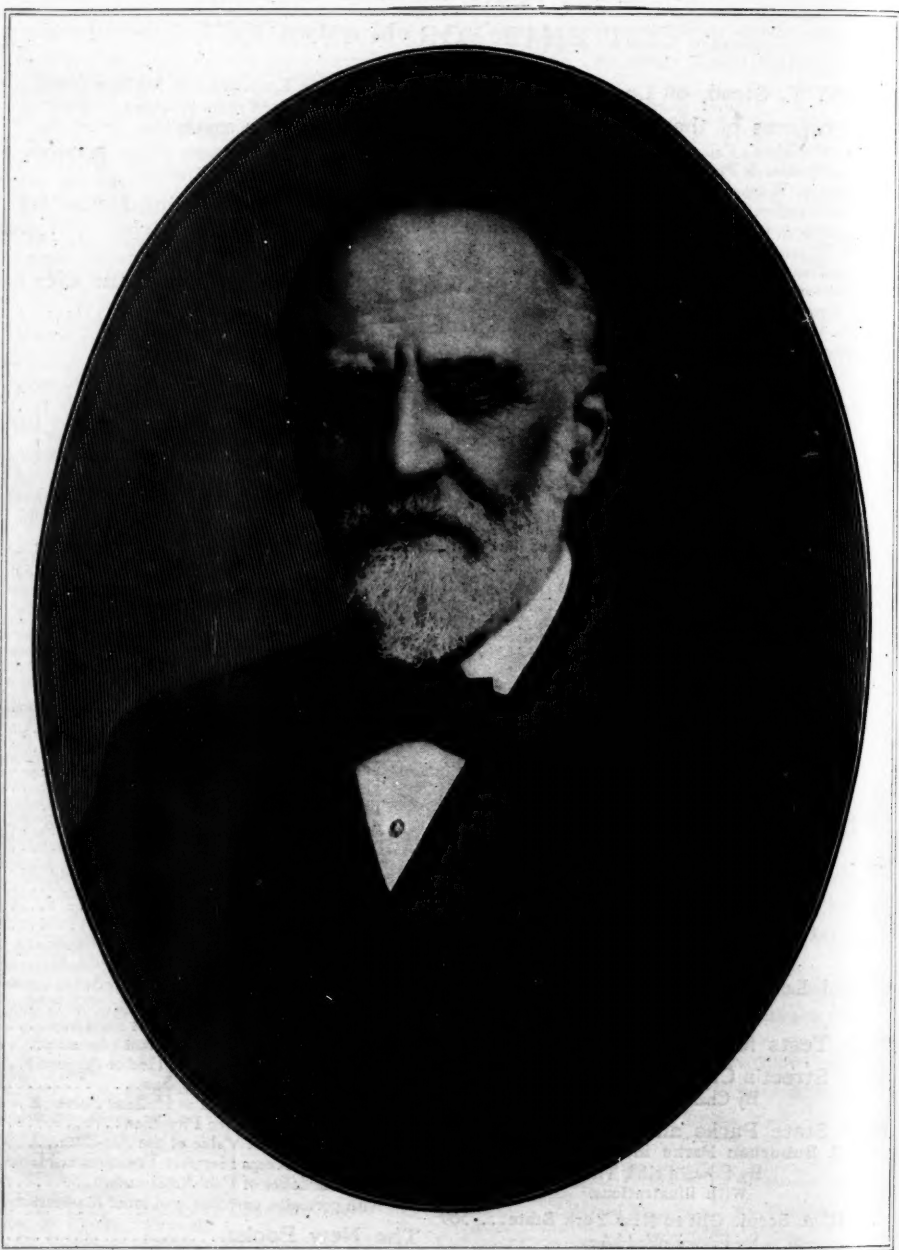
THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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A NEW PORTRAIT OF MR. WILLIAM T. STEAD, TAKEN IN NEW YORK.

(Mr. Stead came from London last month, as one of Mr. Andrew Carnegie's guests, to attend the opening of the Carnegie Institute at Pittsburg and to participate in the sessions of the peace congress at New York. He is speaking in different cities of the United States and Canada, on the progress of arbitration and the peace movement, and returns to England this month.)